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XII.—*Geography of the Cochin-Chinese Empire.* By Dr. GUTZLAFF. Communicated by Sir G. Staunton, Bart.

[Read Nov. 27, 1848.]

It is the principle of the Chinese government to keep their subjects as much as possible from all contact with foreigners; and the neighbouring states have improved upon this policy. If there are no seas and deserts, the government on both sides requires a space between the two countries to be left a jungle and wilderness. If there are mountain defiles, they are guarded in order to prevent all intercourse. Frontier stations are established and garrisons are maintained at an immense expense, to prevent the subjects of the respective countries from trading with one another. In accordance with this system, the Chinese have left the whole space where Kuangtung province borders to the S.W. on Tunkin in the possession of straggling adventurers and native tribes. The last city in this region is Kinchoo, a mean place on an estuary, and about 14 miles from the frontiers. The two countries are separated by a stream, called the Nan-gan-keang, which flows with a winding course from the mountains of Kwangse into the gulf of Tunkin. The tract for about 20 miles to the west and south of the river is debatable ground, claimed by neither power, in many places an impenetrable jungle, frequented by wild beasts and criminals. On the Chinese side there are some poor fortifications: and at the mouth of the river a small garrison, with a custom-house. There are three ridges of mountains, which run in a parallel direction south-east to the shore of the gulf. The Tunkinese side of the frontiers is one continuous flat, with a very fertile soil. On the coast there are a few miserable fishermen.

In this part Tunkin extends to 22° N. lat. The Chinese frontier presents a complete contrast with that of the Tunkinese. A chain of mountains to the south-west of Kwangse separates the two states. On the Chinese side, along a frontier of above 100 English miles, there are eight flourishing cities and fortresses; on the Tunkinese side all is an unhealthy wilderness. The first place of importance in Tunkin is Lang-bak-tran, about 30 gr. m. inland. The Nan-gan river here likewise constitutes the actual boundary.

In the western extremity of Kwangse are situated the mountains which contain the precious metals, and extend along the Yun-nan frontiers. The two empires have never quarrelled about the mines, but have allowed a Laou tribe to work them, in consideration of paying a per-centage to the mandarins of both countries.

Nothing can be more dreary than the Yun-nan frontier for about 100 geographical miles: mountains rise above mountains, some of them capped with snow, and furnish only a very scanty subsistence to a few scattered tribes, who are the miners of the district. The only city of any note on the Yun-nan side is Kae-hwa-foo. The mountains render all fortifications on this frontier unnecessary. The Tunkinese frontier is more populous, and the land is cultivated. The most northern district, a large and fertile valley surrounded by lofty mountains, Kaou-bak-tron, once constituted an independent state. The most western district, Tuyen-kwang-tron, is richly watered, and produces rice.

*General Aspect.* — The Cochin-Chinese empire, Viet-nan An-nan, and under the present kings, the Great South, is naturally divided into three, if not four parts.

1. Tunkin (eastern capital), or Dang-gnoi (the outer region, when spoken of with reference to Cochin-China proper, —which is called Dang-trong, the central or inner), is mountainous on the north, and of the same general character as the adjacent Chinese provinces. On the west, the same chain which separates Cochin-China Proper from the interior of the peninsula, constitutes the boundary towards the Laos country. The east is nearly level, terminating towards the sea in an alluvial plain. On the southern frontier, towards Cochin-China, a wall extends from the mountains to the sea; but the wall is now useless, as both countries are under one sovereign. Next to Korea and Japan, Tunkin has most completely maintained its exclusive system against foreigners; and after all that has been written on the country, it is still almost unknown.

Towards the north, as far as the Song-ka river, Tunkin extends from  $103^{\circ} 50'$  E. long. to about  $109^{\circ} 48'$  E. long.; but from this latter point it is hemmed in by the great Yun-nan ridge, which runs parallel with the sea:  $17^{\circ} 36'$  is its southern limit, and the northern is in  $22^{\circ} 55'$ . It is generally fertile, and contains a large industrious population.

Most of the rivers flow in a south-easterly direction. The largest is the great river Song-ka, which is formed by the union of the Le-teën, a stream which constitutes the boundary between China and the Laos country, and the Song-shai, which rises in the latter country, and passes through a mountain defile not far from the principal city in Tuyen-kwang district. The sand of these rivers contains many particles of gold, and thousands of people are engaged in collecting it. The river then runs south-east, having the capital of Tunkin —Kecho or Hanoi—on its right bank; it makes a sudden bend at Heën, and then, turning northward, forms a delta, in which

Domea, the port for foreign shipping in former times, is situated. It has three mouths; the northernmost of which has the deepest water; the southern is nearly inaccessible to vessels drawing above 10 feet, on account of the banks and shallows. This river, by its periodical overflowing, fertilizes the rice-fields. In spring, after a severe winter in Yun-nan, it discharges a great volume of water. It is not much larger than the Oder; but it has numerous tributaries, and several branches are joined together by canals, both for irrigation and commerce. South-east of the mouth of the Song-ka there are seven streams, all of which flow into the sea. The intervening country consists of swamps and a few rice-fields, and is frequently under water. It is the residence of numerous fishermen, who also hunt the alligator, which is used as food, the flesh being sold in the shambles. It is by no means uncommon to see five or six of these monsters in the court-yard of a fisherman's hut with their mouths gagged. The produce of these fisheries is immense; it supplies the poorer classes in the interior, who seldom taste any meat, and still leaves a large surplus for exportation to China. This thrifty, hard-working race leads a wretched life. Living in their miserable boats, which are often not water-tight, or in huts made of leaves, dry sticks, and bamboo, when they are drying and salting fish, they have scarcely rags sufficient to cover their nakedness. Their skin is tanned by constant exposure to the weather; their customary diet is the refuse of the fish which they catch, with a little rice and salt. Their females are ugly and filthy, and very prolific. Yet these fishermen are a cheerful people, always laughing or singing; they endure hunger, heat, cold, and wet without grumbling; and when a thousand of their brother-fishermen are swept away by an unexpected typhoon, another thousand is ready to take their place.

2. Cochin-China Proper, or Dang-trong, a small strip of land, from 10 to 20 geographical miles in breadth, extends from the southern frontiers of Tunkin to about 12° S., where it borders on Tsiampa. This country is bounded on the west by naked mountains, which have only a scanty vegetation, and for ten miles inland it is a complete desert. The most important river is that on which the capital is situated; but the Songve and Songdalang are larger. Having traversed the regions inhabited by the Annam race, the traveller comes to lofty mountains, which present a dreary waste. No European has yet visited them.

3. Tsiampa (Champa) is a narrow strip of land extending to about 11° 35' N. lat. It is inhabited by a peculiar race, more resembling the Malay than the Annam. It has one

great river, the Song-luong. Since the incorporation of this country with Cochin-China, the aborigines, at one time bold navigators of the Indian Archipelago, have retired to the mountains, a forlorn and persecuted race, and a few thousand Cochin-Chinese have taken possession of the coast.

4. Kambodia, or Kamen: the former name is used in the sacred books, and adopted by Malays and other foreigners; the latter is applied to themselves by the natives. The part which belongs to Cochin-China presents a continued flat; a rich alluvial soil, full of navigable rivers, one of which, the Mekom, is among the largest rivers in southern Asia. This river, which flows through a rich and varied valley, takes its rise in Yun-nan, on the frontiers of Sefan, in  $27^{\circ} 20'$  N. lat., where at first it has the name of Lan-tsan; but towards the south, and before it enters the Laos country, it is called Kew-lung-keang, or Nine-dragon river. The volume of water which it receives in its course from the stupendous mountains through which it makes its way, renders it a mighty stream. In the Chinese territory it runs a considerable distance through a magnificent valley. In  $16^{\circ}$  N. lat. it bends more to the east, and enters Kambodia, after having received a large tributary: it then drains the whole length of that country, and falls by three embouchures into the sea in about  $9^{\circ} 34'$  N. lat. In many places the river is very deep; in others there are rocks and cataracts, shifting banks and shallows, all which impede the navigation. Like all great rivers, it has some outlets which are only accessible at high water. The river is navigable in Yun-nan, and there are many flourishing cities upon it. In Laos many thriving villages adorn the banks; and in Kambodia the principal population is near it. We may conceive what a mighty stream that must be which traverses 18 degrees of latitude, and forms at its mouth an alluvial deposit only second to that of the Yang-tsze and Hwangho.

North-east of Pe-nompeng (Kalumpé), the present capital of Kambodia, is a large lake, the Bienho, in Cochin-Chinese; in Kambodian, Tanle-sap (fresh-water lake); from which a broad stream flows into the Mekom. The Saigon river, which all our maps represent as only being about 20 miles long, is nevertheless a very deep river, easy of access for ships of the greatest burthen, being six fathoms over the bar at the principal entrance, and ten deep in mid-channel. It is joined to the Mekom near its mouth by two channels; and probably it is really one of the outlets of that mighty stream.

Kambodia is a land of rivers. The natural fertility of the soil is very great; but the inhabitants are still behind in

agriculture. Kambodia is nevertheless the granary of Cochin-China, and is rich in all kinds of productions.

There are numerous other rivers. On the frontier of Siam is the Kho river, an insignificant stream, but the boundary between the two countries. On the banks of the Pong-som (also called Com-pong-som or Vung-tom) there is a considerable trading place, Vin-tam-phù, principally inhabited by Chinese. The Hatien, or Kang-kao (in  $10^{\circ} 14'$  N. lat.,  $104^{\circ} 55'$  E. long.), has a great depth of water; and on the bank there is a flourishing town of the same name, inhabited by many Chinese traders and navigators. This was once a great emporium for the whole Kambodian trade, and known to Europeans under the name of Pon-tea-mas (Potai-mat)—a name at present obliterated from the maps. While civil strife in the interior occupied the attention of the king, a man of Chinese descent availed himself of this opportunity to declare it a free port, and thousands of merchants established themselves there in a few years. Justice was administered, the place grew rich—for every man found there a safe dépôt for his goods, and willingly became a subject of the liberal commercial chief. But the envy of the Siamese did not view with indifference so much happiness, and they destroyed the emporium in 1717. Kangkao, which took its place, is still a considerable trading-station for the exportation of rice and salt, principally to Singapore. The junks which belong to it are small, for the harbour is very shallow. In order to facilitate the intercourse the Cochin-Chinese have again opened the canal which joins this river to the Mekom.

The Karmunsa (by the Cochin-Chinese called Rachgea, and by the Chinese Teksea) is joined not far from its embouchure by a considerable tributary, and it falls into the gulf of Siam. It has only recently been joined by a canal to the great Kambodian river. However oppressive the Cochin-Chinese government may be, they wish to facilitate inland communication in imitation of the Chinese, and wherever it is practicable the mandarins effect it by forced labour.

The Tek-maou (Black-water river) is in connexion with the Mekom, and falls by three embouchures into the sea, in  $8^{\circ} 40'$  N. lat., opposite to Poolo Ubi. It is a navigable river, and the water is largely used for irrigation. The soil on its banks is fertile; but fertility does not ensure good cultivation in a country where a little labour produces all that a man wants, and an industrious person is an object of extortion to the rapacious government.

Upper Kambodia extends beyond the  $11^{\circ}$  N. lat., and com-

prises nearly 5° of longitude in breadth (103° 10' to 108°). It is situated on both sides of the Mekom, extending eastward to the Cochin-Chinese range of mountains, and westward to Battambang, the province ceded to Siam, which formerly constituted an integral part of the kingdom: at which time the second mountain range, which issues from Yun-nan and traverses the whole peninsula in its length, was the natural western boundary. To the N. its confines are marked by the bend of the Mekom, the left bank of which belongs to the Laos tribes, who nominally acknowledge the Annam sway. The greater portion of this region is a plain, covered in many parts with magnificent forests, abounding in teak and dye-woods, the resort of tigers and elephants. There are very few cities. The Cochin-Chinese government, being determined upon retaining possession of this country, has made roads through these regions, and one may travel with ease on elephants to the Chan territory. Such is the kingdom of Kambodia, which contains so many natural advantages, and yet continued a paltry state until it was swallowed up by two more powerful neighbours. The only enterprise ever undertaken by this people was to the E. coast of Borneo, where a colony was founded; occasionally they also visited the Philippines.

5. The Moi territory. There are few races so low in the scale of civilization as the Moi mountaineers, who inhabit the regions between Kambodia and Cochin-China, from 10° 40' to 16° N. lat. The Annamese apply the term Moi to all the numerous tribes, which speak different dialects and have different customs. The natives live chiefly on wild fruits and on roots; some sleep in trees, and put a few branches together to make a shelter against the weather; others construct mean huts, and live in small communities, but there are no large villages. The poverty of these people is so great that it has never tempted the avarice of their neighbours to penetrate among the defiles, except for the sake of capturing the people and selling them as slaves. The only place of importance is Nuok-stieng, a Kambodian settlement in the S., on the Song-luong river, which flows through Kweinhon province into the sea. The Cochin-Chinese joined it to the Mekom by a canal, so that they are able to cross the whole country by water. Farther on, near Tay-son-thuong, there is a pass by which the intercourse between Binh-dinh and the Mekom is kept up; another pass, more to the N., which leads from the latter place through numerous valleys for a distance of more than 120 g. miles, to Than-laou-buthai, is a monument of the enterprise and perseverance of the Annamese. The forests abound in eagle-wood, an article much sought after.

6. Territory of the Laos tribes subject to Annam. The whole of the interior of the peninsula is inhabited by a quiet, hard-working race, whose harmless disposition has brought them in subjection to the sway of their neighbours, the Siamese, Birmahs, Chinese, and Annamese. The territory of those who acknowledge the Cochin-Chinese king is to the N. of Kambodia and of the Mekong, which assumes the name of Kewlung in  $17^{\circ}$  N. lat.; on the N. it borders on Tunkin; on the E. the great ridge of mountains above mentioned divides it from Annam; and on the W. it borders on the tribes which are under Siam and China. The breadth of the country varies from 20 to 25 g. miles; there are many cities in the S. and W., but the eastern part is desolate. Here is also a road, traversing the whole length of the country, to the first Chinese Chan station, Nin-beén-chaou, and there are two others in the S. which communicate with Tunkin. Two chains of mountains in the N. traverse the plain, another branches off towards the W.: there are few rivers, and these are but mountain streams. The north-western frontiers border closely upon the Birman dependencies in the Laos country. All accounts describe the country as being in a very flourishing condition, inhabited by thrifty people, who live happy under their patriarchal chiefs; they cultivate the ground, and have some silk and gold manufactures.

If we compute the whole Annam empire to contain 9800 g. sq. miles, we shall not be very far from the truth. The extent of Annam is about equal to that of France, and if we assign to it 12 or 15 millions of inhabitants (all tribes and nations included) we shall probably not exceed the truth.

*Coasts and Islands.*—1. Of Kambodia. Having left the Siamese island Kokong, and sailing along the very low coast of Gosatran (Pursat, in Kambodian), where mangrove-trees alone serve for landmarks, we reach the large island of Kothrol (Phukok, by the Cochin-Chinese), which is separated by navigable straits from the main, and has many islets to the N.W., of which the prevailing formation is sandstone. It is about 7 miles long and 3 broad; the harbour in  $10^{\circ} 17'$  N. lat. and  $104^{\circ} 16'$  long.; well wooded, producing the celebrated eagle-wood; and on the whole coast the *tripang* constitutes, for its value in China, the most important fishery. The natives spear this slug (*Holothuria*), instead of wading through the sea to catch it with the hands, as is done in other places.

To the E., close to the main, is a considerable archipelago (Nhieu-kulao or Nhieu-hon, in Cochin-Chinese) of islets, overgrown with trees, but uninhabited, among which are many fishing stations; and the *tripang*, as well as the seaweed (agar



agar), an article much esteemed in China when boiled down to a jelly, constitute here the principal articles for exportation. Various islands, such as Hontre, in N. lat.  $9^{\circ} 58'$ , long.  $104^{\circ} 37'$  E., Hondat, Hon-kon-ray, and Holon, stretch out towards the S. All these are along the W. coast of Kamaou, or Hateën. Next, Kang-kao harbour, N. lat.  $10^{\circ} 5'$ , is broad at its entrance, but shallow. Farther S. is the embouchure of the Rach-gea and the Kay-kwao harbour, a small inlet for fishing craft. The coast is here even lower than towards the W., and subject to frequent inundation.

Pulo Ubi False, about 5-6 leagues westward from Mui-ong-dok, the most southern promontory of Kambodia, whence a considerable sand-bank runs into the sea, has several islets around it, is thickly wooded, and contains some springs of pure water. Whenever the people of the main are visited by an inundation of the sea and destitute of rain water, they procure their supplies here.

Hon-kwae (Pulo Ubi), 5 leagues S. from that promontory, in N. lat.  $8^{\circ} 25'$ , long.  $104^{\circ} 54'$  E., has high mountains, which may be seen from a great distance. The Kambodians call it Ka-tam-bung, the Siamese Ko-man: it has a scanty vegetation, and no production worthy of remark. There are a few inhabitants at present collecting the seaweed for the Chinese market, and acknowledging the king of Annam for their sovereign. The Chinese who sail to the Indian archipelago consider this as the principal landmark. Both islands bear the name of Ubi, on account of the immense yams, 40 lbs. to 100 lbs. in weight, that grow wild there.

Pulo Panjang, in N. lat.  $9^{\circ} 5'$ , is surrounded by six isles. The principal formation is sandstone. It is only inhabited accidentally when the pirates from the Solo islands resort there, or when Chinese sailors stay there to collect sea-weed. The Cochin-Chinese government claims the sovereignty, and calls it Tho-shan, without endeavouring to disperse the outlaws who trouble the Archipelago with their depredations, and often annihilate the whole trade carried on along the coast of Kambodia.

We mention here Pulo Way, in lat.  $9^{\circ} 55'$ , off Cape Liant, as debatable ground, without any inhabitants and any other importance, except as a landmark for navigators.

Far more celebrated is Konnon Condore (by the Chinese Kwan-lun), in N. lat.  $8^{\circ} 40'$ ,  $105^{\circ} 55'$  E. long. in the form of a crescent, with high peaks. It produces a variety of plants and trees which one seldom sees in other regions, such as the milk and tar-tree; it is now well inhabited, and furnishes many curious productions to the Annam court. It is the

largest island in this district, and greatly esteemed by the Cochinese; to the Chinese it is a principal landmark in their southern navigation. On account of its convenient situation the English founded, in the beginning of the last century, a colony, and built a fort there. This existed a very short time, and was ruined by the treachery of some Buginese mercenaries in the pay of the Company: the greater part of the Europeans having been assassinated, it was ultimately abandoned. Foreigners landing there were most friendly received and well treated. Many islets are situated all around, and form excellent harbours. Towards the E. we merely mention two rocks, Pulo Sapata and the Cutwick, to which the Cochinese have affixed no names, and which are remarkable for constituting the utmost extent of the typhoon range.

We should not mention here the *Paracels* (Katvang) which approach 15-20 leagues to the coast of Annam, and extend between  $15^{\circ}$ — $17^{\circ}$  N. lat. and  $111^{\circ}$ — $113^{\circ}$  E. longitude, if the King of Cochinese did not claim these as his property, and many isles and reefs, so dangerous to navigators. Whether the coral animals or other causes contribute to the growth of these rocks we shall not determine; but merely state that the islets rise every year higher and higher, and some of them are now permanently inhabited, through which the waves, only a few years ago, broke with force. They would be of no value if the fisheries were not very productive, and did not remunerate all the perils of the adventurer. From time immemorial, junks in large number from Haenan, have annually visited all these shoals, and proceeded in their excursions as far as the coast of Borneo. Though more than ten per cent. are annually wrecked, the quantity of fish taken is so great as to ensure all loss, and still leave a very good profit. The Annam government, perceiving the advantages which it might derive if a toll were raised, keeps revenue cutters and a small garrison on the spot to collect the duty on all visitors, and to ensure protection to its own fishermen. A considerable intercourse has thus gradually been established, and promises to grow in importance on account of the abundance of fish which come to these banks to spawn. Some isles bear a stunted vegetation, but fresh water is wanting; and those sailors who neglect to take with them a good supply are often put to great straits.

Returning to the E. coast of *Kambodia*. Of the many embouchures and islets of the delta we have already spoken; the deep estuary Dinh-tuong is connected by a small stream with the Saigon river. This anchorage is entirely unknown

to foreign navigators, but of importance to the coasting trade.

The first highland is the Mui-vintau (*Cape James*), in  $10^{\circ} 16' 41''$ , long.  $107^{\circ} 4' 15''$ , and the whole coast assumes a different geological aspect, granite being of frequent occurrence. The bay formed by it on the S. and on the N. by the Mui-thuivan (*Cape Ti-woane*) is distant from the former about 13 *E. miles*. The river Lap falls into it, after having traversed a fertile and thickly inhabited country; vessels not drawing above 6 feet can ascend it for some distance. The Mui-ba-kek constitutes, with the former, another bay, at the bottom of which we find likewise the mouth of a still smaller river. Since the Cochin-Chinese have taken possession of the country these natural advantages have not been neglected, and a great number of small vessels are constantly sailing along the shore; docks have been established, and the principal junks and ships are built there on account of the cheapness of timber. If the people had any share in this it would be pleasing to dwell on the favourable change, and the benefits conferred by the new rulers. Government, however, monopolizes everything: the barks that are laden with rich produce carry it to the coast, the vessels launched are revenue cutters or men-of-war, and the natives, like aliens, are excluded from all the natural advantages. The invariable principles of this Government are to keep the subjects poor, that they may be more obedient, and to oppress the Kam-bodians in order to extinguish their nationality.

One continual tract of extreme sterility meets our eye the moment we approach the coast of Tsiampa. Sand-hills without any vegetation, peaks with stunted shrubs, granite formations of every description, and a reddish disintegrated mass of stones meet here the wanderer, who is seldom gratified by the sight of greensward. This desolation does not, however, confine itself to the coast alone, but extends over the whole breadth of Tsiampa to the Mekom, and over Kambodia. The mountains, which are here only 200 feet high, rise there to 8000, yet are not entirely naked.

As the coast is sterile in vegetation, so it is rich in harbours, and much resembles in both respects the south-western parts of Fokeên.

The Kamranh river separates the two countries, and falls into a bay formed by the Bakek and Kega promontories. At the entrance is the dangerous Britto shoal and the Honba (*Cow island*). A few poor wretches live here as fishermen, but far and wide not one large city or village exists.

Off this coast, in lat.  $10^{\circ} 32\frac{1}{2}'$ , long.  $108^{\circ} 53'$ , is Kulaou-

thu, an island much celebrated for its birds'-nests and abundance of tripang, and hence visited by the Annamese, under control of Government, which never allows a single article whereon a duty may be levied, or a monopoly contracted, to escape its vigilance.

Bay follows here on bay, exhibiting the same barren aspect, with sundry ridges of hills running N.E. and S.W. into the country.

The Phugui Bay, between Kega and Vinay promontories, is conspicuous for a very high peak, at the foot of which two streams fall into it at Phantiet, a small town, and one of the stations established by Government. They descend from the Moi-vi mountains: whether or not they are navigable to any extent we have not been able to ascertain.

In the bay formed by the Muy-lagan Cape, 16 E. miles N.E. of Vinay, the largest river of these regions, which stands in connexion with the Mekom, called the Long-luong, falls into the sea. The country then assumes a more cheering aspect, and not far from its mouth is Binh-doan-dinh, the metropolis of Tsiampa, and present seat of government. The inhabitants are more numerous, and enabled to carry on agriculture by the neighbourhood of the river.

Koo-laou-kau (Hon-kau, or Pulo Ceicer de terre), in lat.  $11^{\circ} 13'$ , long.  $108^{\circ} 48'$ , is a famous fishing-station, which, with the Lagan and Muy-din (Pharang-Padaran) promontory, forms another harbour, at which Kana is situated. The latter is in lat.  $11^{\circ} 21'$ , long.  $109^{\circ}$  E., 5 leagues from the island: a bluff and high cape, about 3000 feet above the sea, joined by a low sandy isthmus to the main, so as to have the appearance of an island. As it is very difficult to double the promontory with a head-wind, it has received from our sailors the name of the Cape of Good Hope. We find here a small city, Vung-vang, at the bottom of the harbour, where Annamese industry is contending with an ungrateful soil. From Muy-din, N.N.E.  $\frac{1}{2}$  E.,  $8\frac{1}{2}$  leagues, is the Davaeh Cape, of an oblong form, with steep cliffs; the whole region around presents a vast scene of desolation, and hence the name applied to the promontory (Davaeh, Sterility).

The deepest of all the bays is that of Kamraigne, and having Tayu, a high island, at the entrance, and being surrounded on all sides by land, it has rather the appearance of a lake. The mountains in the neighbourhood are said to be rich in silver. The river, which forms the northern boundary of the Tsiampa country, and which the hydrostatic skill of the Annamese has joined to the Mekom, falls here into the sea, after a course of 37 g. miles, reckoned in a straight line at the northern extre-

mity, near Thuy Trieu. For keeping up the inland communication it is of incalculable benefit to the country. The N.E. land which forms this spacious harbour becomes a peninsula by a small river, which at Khaou Kho rises in a marsh, and runs due S. into the bay, parallel to the coast among sand-hills for 5—6 leagues. This appears to be the most spacious and best harbour which Annam possesses; but there is no inducement either for foreigners or natives to visit it. The inhabitants all around are poor fishermen, earning a precarious subsistence, and, moreover, exposed to the extortions of the mandarins.

North of Kamraigne bay are the Hon-noi and Hongnoai islets (water islands) in  $12^{\circ} 2'$  and  $12^{\circ} 4'$ , with several rocks around. There is a large sandy plain, extending to the southern entrance of Nhia-trang bay, about 3 leagues in extent, and forming with a bluff point the Lam-toan bay. The former receives its name from the province in which it is situated. The inhabitants are exclusively Cochin-Chinese; the land is well inhabited and cultivated, and the whole bears a far more cheerful aspect than the southern regions. The bay itself is very small, and sheltered towards the E. by the Hontre island, but there is very good anchorage at Binkung. A few miles W. is the largest city in these regions, and the metropolis of the province, Binhua, a thriving place, with an industrious population. Another river, which is likewise connected with the Mekom, falls here into the sea. We find everywhere traces of the calculating principles of the mandarins in facilitating intercourse by opening canals. There are a number of reefs and islets, of which we mention *Pyramid* island, in lat.  $12^{\circ} 21'$ , with a cone on it, from which it received its name; and another, called Shala. The region here presents a romantic aspect—the trees are shady and tall, and some of the valleys offer charming views, heightened by the contrast of the barrenness of other spots in the bay of Hong-khoe, 5 leagues N. of Pyramid island. Between the main and the island Hodinh, which runs out in the Kay-sung promontory, there is a passage several leagues in breadth, showing on both sides elevated hills and a very woody country. Here also, at the city of Thienphat, a river falls into the sea. This district has scarcely ever been visited by foreigners. E. of this are the Doi-moi islands. We have thus reached the easternmost point of Annam, viz., Muinai (Varela promontory). Here we still remark that a very deep bay runs in from Hon-khoi N.E., which bears the name of Ongro: at the bottom a high mountain of a picturesque form may be seen many miles off. The peninsula, of which this is the cape, is narrow and sandy, possessing nothing of the pleas-

ing nature of the mainland. Muynai mountain itself is about 2000 feet high, and one of its peaks has the appearance of a broken column. Here, according to report, silver is found; and in the middle a hot fountain bubbles out of the ground. The peak can be seen at an immense distance from the sea, and constitutes an excellent landmark: its situation is in N. lat.  $12^{\circ} 53'$ , long.  $109^{\circ} 24\frac{1}{2}'$  E. A perforated rock (Da-khoan) is 4—5 N.  $\frac{1}{2}$  W. from it.

The harbour Daran has in its neighbourhood the Maenha and Baimalieng islands not far from the mainland, and receives the Dalang river. The coast is not much elevated, and runs for 6 g. m. nearly due north.

We have now come to the richest part of Cochin-China, Phu-yen-tran, a well-cultivated productive district, both remarkable for its fertility and its beauty. The principal place, Phu-yen, situated on a land-locked harbour in lat.  $13^{\circ} 23'$ , has three different anchorages for vessels, viz., the Chuen-dae, Vung-lam, and Vung-chao. The country is seen to the greatest advantage—industry and a large population uniting to give to the scenery the highest effect.

Kalao-xanh (Pule Combir) in lat.  $13^{\circ} 33'$ , 4—5 m. westward of Muy-nai, has a sloping appearance, but, unlike the main, it is barren, and forms with it Vung-koo-mang bay, an anchorage of considerable depth. We next arrive in Chogia harbour (Combir bay), a spot little known, as well as the islands that are scattered about in this direction, with a safe passage between the main. Numerous fishermen resort to them, and however small the islets may be, they constitute useful appendages to the mainland.

Nouk-man (*Quinhon* harbour) presents a very spacious anchorage; though very shallow, and not admitting ships of a deep draught, it is much visited by native vessels. This harbour is formed by a peninsula running down S.E. into Cape Sanho, lat.  $13^{\circ} 44'$ , long.  $109^{\circ} 14'$ ; and the principal place, *Bindinh*, the capital of the district, is situated close to it. The coast is bold, strewed with islands, such as Tuk-tan-chan, Honkon, Honko, and others, which are of interest only to fishermen. The northernmost is Hon-lang (*Buffalo* island), in lat.  $14^{\circ} 11'$ . A river falls into the sea in Vung-nuok-ngot (at fresh-water point); and northward 3—4 leagues is *Turtle* island, near which good anchorage is found.

Before reaching the coast of Kwang-gnaitran, of which the Sahuinh estuary and Song cape constitute the boundary, we arrive at the mouth of the Tan-kwan river, in lat.  $14^{\circ} 39'$ , and the harbour Saphu: a little farther northward is a deep islet, called Cua-kun-bong. Wherever one lands one meets bustle

and activity, and desolate loneliness has entirely disappeared ; the inhabitants have changed, by their energy, the sandy spots into fertile fields. Farther northward, near Tracau, another small river falls into the sea, the coast is less indented, and the hills exhibit traces of cultivation, until we reach the estuary of Quang-ngai, on which stands a city of the same name. Between this spot and the promontory Saky (Batangan), Culao Re (Pulo Canton, in lat.  $15^{\circ} 23'$ , long.  $109^{\circ} 6' E.$ ), there is a large, sterile island, through which three ridges of hills run the whole length, with here and there some stunted trees growing in sandy soil.

The Thong-binh and Lam-cham capes are bold, and on having doubled them, we enter the haven of Vang-guit-quit (Aphoa) on the southern boundary of Quang-nam district, close to the foot of lofty mountains.

The coast hence extends N.W. b. N. 15 leagues, to Turan (Cua-han) bay. On the northern side of Aphoa a river falls into the sea, and the country around is either artificially or naturally watered. Various small islands, such as Hon-ban-than and Hon-nan, lie scattered hereabout : Cu-laou-cham is in lat.  $15^{\circ} 54'$ , a very high island, about 3 leagues from the main, bold and barren, with huge masses of rock piled upon it. The coast is steep ; grey granite, granulated, and embedding quartz and mica, are the prominent features of the formation.

Faifo, the largest emporium for the Chinese, and formerly for the Japan trade on this coast, is situated on an estuary, into which a river empties itself, and joined to Turan by a salt-water creek which runs parallel to the coast. It has a very extensive commerce, and is a flourishing emporium. A little farther up we find Quan-nan-dinh, the principal place of this region ; it is at the bottom of the inlet, into which the Dai-cham river flows.

No place along this whole coast is so well known as *Turan Bay* : the eastern extremity of the island (Hon-san-sha), or peninsula which forms this harbour, is in lat.  $15^{\circ} 5'$ , long.  $108^{\circ} 15' E.$ , and Calao-cham in lat.  $16^{\circ} 11'$ . Approaching from the south, masses of marble rocks (dolomite)—grotesque in appearance, and at variance with the scenery around—appear as if they were insulated, because the sand around them is very low. There are three streams ; the mouths of one river fall into this basin, which is surrounded by mountains on the main, like an amphitheatre, and only the south side in the direction of Faifo presents level ground. It is about 8 miles in breadth, but the landlocked anchorage is of a very moderate extent, at the N.E. and the S. angles. Even in fine weather a heavy swell breaks on the shore, which renders land-

ing dangerous. The neighbourhood of the capital, and the promise of Gialong, the former King of Annam, to cede the country around to the French if they afforded him the requisite assistance in suppressing the rebel Tysons, have rendered this bay famous to European navigators.

The island Hon-hanh is N.W. of Turan; and not far from it the harbour of Vungdam, which is about 5 miles across. The surf which breaks here on the rocks is quite terrible, and the anchorage during the N.E. monsoon dangerous.

On approaching the coast of Kwangduk, on which the capital is situated, we first espy the cape of Choumay, in lat.  $16^{\circ} 21'$  N.W. b. W., 9 leagues from Turan, near to which are Moi, wherein a river flows, and Tudong, two small harbours.

The bay (Cua-thuan-an) into which the Hué river falls, is similarly protected by an island, as the Turan harbour, but very little known to our navigators; and the entrance of the small river is in lat.  $16^{\circ} 35'$ . At a distance of a few miles the capital is built on its banks. Over the bar there are about 12 feet of water at spring-tides, so that only vessels of a small draught can cross it. Here also is a heavy surf; and it is most difficult to leave the river during the N.E. monsoon. The entrance is well fortified, with European art, and it would be next to impossible to force the bar, if skilful and brave gunners served the cannon.

The part of the coast we have now traversed has been most carefully surveyed; beyond this our accounts are very scanty, and the gulf of Tunkin remains still, for the greater part, a mare incognitum. This is the more extraordinary, because the seas around have been so minutely examined, and the Annam government itself has neither spared expense nor labour to construct proper charts of them. This neglect arose no doubt from the wish to bury Tunkin in oblivion, and to screen it against the prying curiosity of Europeans. The little information we have been able to glean we shall state in a few words.

On arriving at the coast of Quang-tri-tran we perceive *Honco* (Tiger island), in  $16^{\circ} 55'$ . S.W. of this is Viet harbour, with the principal city of this region near it, and due W. from Honco, the Tung harbour. The coast is low and sandy, stretching N.W. The last maritime city in Cochin-China is *Kwan-binh*, on a deep islet of the sea (Cua-dong-hor), a flourishing place. On the other side of the wall that separates Tunkin, parallel to it, is a river that falls there into the sea. Andau, with a number of other small isles, lie a little further on, close in shore, which presents not the least variety, but is a continued flat, intersected by numerous streams that run through the



whole of the island. The first anchorage we meet with is called Gianh. The coast trends from hence N.W. b. N. for 10 leagues, and is scarcely visible to a vessel close in shore. In lat.  $18^{\circ} 14'$  we find the large island Sorel, with Hongnu, and a number of others, near the coast of Nghéan-tran, which we believe to be alluvial deposits, at the mouths of several rivers that fall here into the sea. There is no doubt good anchorage between them, though it has never been ascertained by observation and research.

Sonthai-tran has several small harbours, such as Cua-thai and Han-hon, which are commodious for fishermen. The coast runs here nearly N. to the island of Tin Cay, an extensive well-inhabited spot, in lat.  $18^{\circ} 18'$ , and the well-sheltered bay it forms has two arms of a river falling into it. We mention the names of the harbours that follow each other in succession, though none of them is of any importance: such are Cua Bang, Bich Hon-ne, and Trieu, the latter the northernmost. No large city exists, and the region appears to be the property of fishermen and rice cultivators; whilst the merchant does not possess an inch of ground. *Cua-lac* is a spacious harbour, sheltered against all except southerly winds, and the abode of a few merchants. The large Thanphu river falls into this bay.

Nam-dinh-tran is the Sunderbund of this part of the world. The harbours formed by the various embouchures of the river, distant from one another only a few miles, commencing S., are the following:—Cua Thuoc, Xien, Bien, Lan, Traly, Ho, Dai-binh, the latter at the S. entrance to the Song-ca, Cua-uc (the northern, in  $20^{\circ} 50'$ ); the nearest place to this is Domea, celebrated as a trading station in times of yore. For the southern, which is visited by Chinese junks, Fisher Island serves as a landmark. There are shoals and reefs hereabout in great number, which render the navigation very dangerous. Add to this the typhoons, which blow here with overwhelming force, and it is by no means surprising that so little commerce exists with a country which, in other respects, would invite by its industry foreign traders. The water over the bar of the southern branch of the river varies according to the freshes; and where one finds 12 feet at one time, one has at another 18—20. The navigation is very precarious, and exposed to great risks and danger, as long as no survey is made.

Now, little remains to remark. The two bays of Ke-keu and Ke-to, on the N. coast of the country, receive both rivers, and afford good anchorage. The latter is the most spacious of those of the whole empire, and has at least eighteen large islands in it, which are inhabited; but we have no further information as to their products.

The archipelago on the east coast is disputed ground between the Chinese and Annamese, and vagabonds of both nations find here a place of refuge. Both governments have from time to time sent squadrons of war-boats to destroy the settlements; but the impunity enjoyed here is too great, so a large number of lawless fellows is attracted and rendered sufficiently daring to resist the authorities. Amongst some islets pearl oysters are found, and many boats proceed thither in the fine seasons to dive for them.

*Climate.*—Kambodia enjoys a delightful temperature, although the weather throughout the rainy season (May—September) is often very sultry: the dry monsoon during the remaining part of the year is clear and the heat very moderate, seldom exceeding 90°, and ordinarily being only about 80°. Cochin-China presents the very reverse of the seasons to Tunkin and Kambodia, on account of the ridge of mountains which breaks the clouds. From October up to January the weather is very boisterous, and typhoons are by no means uncommon—where in the former the wet season reigns, the latter is dry, and *vice versâ*. The thermometer never rises there above 103°, nor sinks below 53°, and the climate throughout is healthy and agreeable. Tunkin in this respect resembles Bengal, but participates likewise in the oppressive heat and very disagreeable cold of China. Those who have never witnessed the *typhoons*, which sweep this country from one extremity to the other, will look upon a faithful description of this fearful visitation as overdrawn. Though earthquakes and the eruption of volcanoes may be far more terrific, still if one wishes to form an idea of the last moment when heaven and earth shall pass away, he may take the initiation of a *typhoon*. It is as if everything were devoted to destruction, and the world were again to return to a chaos. No words can convey an idea of such an awful moment, and the violence of the tempest in which man is scarcely an atom. Such is the scourge with which Tunkin is frequently visited, and in which northern Cochin-China occasionally participates.

*Productions.*—In this we merely point out what the country brings forth in greater perfection than other parts of the world. Loureiro, a Roman Catholic missionary, examined accurately in the last century the botany of Cochin-China,\* and attached native names to all the plants. Several French naturalists have after him prosecuted the same researches, so that everything in this branch is well known.

The richest vegetation is found in Kambodia, which pos-

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\* Vide Loureiro, J. de, 'Flora Cochinchinensis,'—Ulyssiponis, 1790, 2 vols. 4to.  
—Ed.

sesses the same soil and climate as Siam, and has similar productions. The *teak*-tree is still found along the western shore, and felled by the Hainamese to build junks. Both ebony and red dye-wood are met with in the northern parts; little, however, is exported, on account of the difficulty of transport and the small demand in the harbours. The *Nauclea orientalis* (Go), a hard, black, and heavy timber, admitting the finest polish, is extensively used for furniture. Another sort is the *choo*, which serves similar purposes. The great riches of the northern forests have never yet been rendered available, but a future government will some day understand how to draw advantages from them. Kambodia produces the largest quantity and best quality of *betel*-nuts of any country in Asia, of *three* different descriptions, the red, white, and small, and exports them in vast abundance. The *Areca* Palm is too well known to need here any description; but we may observe that it grows without much culture in extensive gardens. It is remarkable that neither the *mangoosteen* nor *durian* thrive here: the utmost eastern limit of their cultivation appears to be Siam, beyond this they are very seldom found. *Gamboge*, however, with a variety of sweet-smelling resins, are peculiar to this country. The former exudes from incisions being made in the stem of the *Garcinia cambogia*, a very high tree, the fruit of which is eatable. Equally valued in trade is *stichlac*, a substance used in dyeing red: it is the produce of an insect, and of very fine quality. The cardamoms of Kambodia are highly prized throughout China, as well as the aniseed (*Pimpinella anisum*). Other articles of the vegetable kingdom are likewise found here; amongst them pepper, which is grown in the west, but not paying the cultivator, it is therefore at present neglected. The mulberry-tree is in some regions extensively cultivated to furnish food for the silkworm. The natives understand the treatment of these insects, and their produce is sufficient for home consumption; the silk goods have even obtained a name in the trade of the interior of the peninsula. As the insects must die before the silk can be obtained, many of the strict Buddhists abstain, out of religious motives, from the rearing of them, in order to preserve animal life.

*Tsiampa* has one production which is valued all over Asia—the *eagle-wood*, or *alambuc* or *aloes* (*aloeerylum agallochum*), on account of its pungent fragrancý and constant use in burning incense to the idols. There are at least *three* different kinds, yet not well known to botanists: the tree, when old, is throughout its lower parts and roots furnished with an aromatic oil, and hence the agreeable odour of the wood when burnt. It is generally reduced to powder, and then, being

mixed with gum, is smeared on small sticks, of which an immense quantity is used in China in the worship of the gods. As this article keeps up a steady price and is always in demand, it is considered a valuable monopoly, though the best pieces are never sold, but given as presents to princes and grandees.

The *cinnamon* (*Laurus cinnamomum*) of *Cochin-China* has always been celebrated in China, and especially in the south, where the *cassia*, a cheap and excellent substitute, grows in abundance. The sons of Han do the same with respect to this substance as with *camphor*. This they possess in the highest perfection, but they still buy another kind from Sumatra and Borneo for ten times the price: the tree grows in the light sandy soil northward of the city of *Faijo*, and even in the *Moi* country. It seems to be decidedly larger than that found in Ceylon. Ten varieties are known in the market, which differ much in price; the bark of some is thick, of others very thin, but it is never freed of the epidermis in trade: the price fluctuates between 30-1200 dollars per *pecul*, according to the quality, in the valuation of which the *Cochin-Chinese* doctors excel. The latter will by the mere touch ascertain the value of the nostrum amongst their medicines. They ascribe immense virtue to it in certain diseases, and as a token of the highest esteem make presents of it. The writer having once rendered some service to the *Annam* government, was rewarded by a piece of *cinnamon*, to which the donor affixed an incalculable value. If the king wishes to be very gracious, it is in this manner he shows his condescension, and the principal article of tribute to *Peking* is this bark. *Annam*, moreover, produces excellent *cotton* on the sea-coast (the most adapted to the growth of it) both for home consumption and also for exportation. A coarse *sugar* is grown both in *Kambodia* as well as *Annam*: it is chiefly used in home consumption. A species of *tea-plant* thrives in all the northern parts very luxuriantly: its leaves are coarse, and so the poorer classes only use it. The *Tunkinese* understand how to apply the valuable products of their country much better than the *Kambodians*. The *varnish-tree* produces a substance superior to the *Japanese*, and furnishes a large supply, not only for home manufacture, but also for exportation, of great beauty and durability. The *chao kwo*, a sort of *cardamoms*, with a variety of other drugs, likewise occurs here: so also the *chuleang* (*Dioscorea alata*), a kind of *yam*, which growing wild contains a brown dye, and is for that purpose very generally bought by the *Chinese*.

The general food of the people is, as in all southern Asia, *rice*. Of this *Kambodia* is the storehouse, which moreover

has a great deal for exportation. *Tunkin*, though producing much more, has, on account of its dense population, less to spare.

We may remark, in conclusion, that the *sweet potato* is the common food of the poorest classes, mixed with a little *rice*. Another article for the consumption of the great mass is the *earth-nut* (*arachis hypogæa*), which grows in a sandy unproductive soil with little care, and is eaten fresh, roasted, or salted, whilst the oil it furnishes is mixed with their dishes as well as burnt in their lamps. The farinaceous root of the *nebulum* (*arrow-root*) is likewise generally consumed: the inhabitants of the more favoured districts use *rice* exclusively, but where this does not thrive, *maize* is partly substituted. There is a great want of pot-herbs and vegetables, and little variety is observed, because the inhabitants never introduce any from foreign parts. The vegetable kingdom of *Annam* more resembles that of southern China, with its rocky mountains and scanty vegetation; but it entirely differs from that of the tropics. *Kambodia*, on the contrary, exhibits the luxurious growth of *Java* and *Sumatra*, and in many respects the same botanical features.

In *Kambodia* the *buffalo* lives amongst mud and ditches, and is a very powerful animal: farther north its fierceness much decreases. The *bullock* is of a very small breed; the *horses*, except in *Laos*, are also diminutive. In the latter country they have spirited ponies, well adapted to warfare and other purposes. There, as well as in *Kambodia*, the *elephant* is domesticated, and used by the *Annamese* in war, though with no effect. This enormous creature inhabits the immense wastes in large herds, and is very easily tamed. The *Cochin-Chinese* do not absurdly venerate the white ones, which are worshipped by the *Siamese* and *Birmans*: not so the *Kambodians*. In the north of the latter country and in *Laos* the *rhinoceros* (of which several species exist) is found wilder and higher than in any other part of *Asia*. The number of *horns* that are annually exported, and to which a superior medical quality is ascribed and a higher price demanded, would lead us to suppose that this animal must be common. The *tiger* is not inferior to his congener in *Bengal*, and the *leopard* likewise occurs. The *monkeys* of *Annam* are fine creatures, and seen in the forests in multitudes, but the wildest and strongest species are natives of *Kambodia*: the *pig*, as in *China*, is here the principal domestic animal. All that comes from the *cow* is held in abhorrence, and the antipathy which the *Chinese* also show to it seems to be more natural than religious. Little attention is paid to the breed of this useful animal: *sheep* are small, and only found in the south, whilst *goats* are frequently seen browsing in the mountains. In all parts our *barn-door fowl*

thrives, and the *pheasant* has spread over the whole country: *ducks* are in the marshy districts reared with great advantage; *geese* are few and not indigenous; both the latter, in a wild state, visit the country in immense flocks in winter. The poverty of the inhabitants prevents their rearing a great quantity of domestic animals—meat, moreover, is not a usual portion of their food. The coasts, as well as the rivers, are rich in *fishes* remarkable for their splendid colours: the *Annamese* are first-rate fishermen, but the *Tunkinese* surpass them. There is no art which is carried to so great a perfection as *fishing*, nor on which, comparatively, so large a number of persons is employed: they proceed to the capture with nets, hooks, harpoons, wicker-baskets, bamboos, in all kinds of vessels, and adapt their contrivances to the fishing-ground. By far the larger part of the population subsists on *fish* and *rice*; hence the enormous demand. Government has, however, so managed its taxes that the hardworking fishermen scarcely earn a subsistence.

Of the *alligators* we have already spoken; it seems to be the largest kind that is found on the coast. The *shark* is caught and eaten; so also is the *Boa Constrictor*, of which the writer was an eye-witness, for the *Annamese* are gross feeders, and their stomach refuses nothing but *beef*; dogs, rats, and several species of *lizards* are even eaten. The *Tunkinese* excel in rearing the *silkworm*, though the silk is far inferior to the Chinese in staple and gloss, on account of the bad management of the skein; still, formerly, it fetched a very fair price in the markets of Japan and Europe.

The *Geological formation* of *Cochin-China* is *primitive*; the mountains are composed of *granite* and *syenite*. A small quantity of *limestone* here and there occurs; whilst several hills consist of *quartz*. Of the *white marble* with *blue streaks*, near *Tinan*, we have before spoken. *Tunkin*, however, possesses this rock in higher perfection and beauty; great masses of it are found near *Chutham*, with extensive subterranean caverns, some filled with water, and communicating with each other, so that boats can traverse them. *Tunkin* is the only part of the empire which affords the precious metal.

The richest *gold mines* are in the direction of *Yunnan*, on the same ridge of hills as those of *Makoo* and *Mauso*, which are worked under the influence of the Chinese government. The prevailing population here consists of *Laos*, but there are also a few *Tunkinese*. Gold is found amongst sterile and almost inaccessible mountains, but in large quantities, so as to remunerate the labour. Were the Government not too rapacious and ignorant, the amount of it might be increased ten times. At the present day the *Laos* export the greater part to *China*.

clandestinely, to avoid the heavy tax. The silver-mines near Shih-la and Nunganchow (both Chinese frontier towns, the latter in lat.  $24^{\circ} 58'$ , long.  $101^{\circ} 41'$ ), as well as those in the neighbourhood of Malung, are very rich, and are worked with much spirit. We are not able to give the details of the mining carried on there, but more than one hundred thousand labourers are daily employed in the bowels of the earth. The mountaineer Laos also engage here most extensively in these pursuits; and being very hardy, no better men could possibly be found for this purpose. The region itself is very barren and devoid of interest. The annual quantity of bullion derived by Government from these works is not much below one million of taels. Of the *iron-works*, which are likewise met with here, we could not collect any information; the produce, however, is scarcely sufficient to supply the native smiths. Cochin-China, as well as Kambodia, are nearly destitute of all metals, and if any exist there, they have not yet been brought to light.

*History.*—The history of Kambodia of which native records exist, commences with the introduction of Buddhism about two centuries after our era, though the date is erroneously placed much anterior. Before this, the inhabitants seem to have led a roving life, like some Laos tribes of the present day, and not united in forming a state. The propagation of this superstition took place previous to its acceptance in Siam, and the Kambodians glory in having given civilization to that country. At a very early period they invented a beautiful alphabet in imitation of the Pali, and composed many books. Amongst these there are historical legends, mere transcripts of those received from India, repeating the same stories of giants and hobgoblins, genii and spirits, which disfigure those Eastern tales. The commencement of their annals is founded upon these absurdities; and celestial beings, as in Japan, are said to have first obtained the sway over their country.

The invasion of the *Chinese* during the time of the Han dynasty was also felt here, and many adventurers of that army reached this remote spot. Both the language, which received several technical words from the Chinese, as well as the government and manners, were most essentially affected by this event; yet, long before a soldier had reached this country, the Chinese merchant had visited its coast. The great veneration we feel for the Tyrians, we may safely extend to the Chinese of remote antiquity, who were just as adventurous, and sailed along the shores of southern Asia, until they reached Ceylon, and even the gulf of Persia. In Kambodia they found productions much valued in their own country, and established

there a profitable market, as the rude inhabitants knew not how to prepare manufactures, with which their own country abounded; and they handsomely paid for the raw produce. We should wish to have some particulars of this early commercial intercourse, but though the Chinese annals are very bulky, they love to dwell on the most trivial actions of princes, and the fortunes of worthless favourites, considering national development and resources far below their notice. The history of the Kambodians themselves is too much taken up with the puerile acts of the king, and the capture of a white monkey or elephant, and consequently finds no place for indicating the state of commerce.

The name of this country (Chen-la) officially occurs in Chinese history for the first time in A.D. 618. Under the Tsin and Han dynasties the power of the Chinese was successfully exerted over all south-eastern Asia. Hence, the desire of the smaller states to pay tribute to the Great Emperor, and to avert, by this homage, the crushing influence of China's vast power. All the princes who did so, shared in the Imperial benevolence, and the tribute-bearers obtained exemption from all duties; so that they appeared at the capital as mercantile diplomatists, who often realized much money by their show of fealty. These voyages being profitable, became frequent, and even distant Sumatra and various other islands of the Archipelago sent envoys to prostrate themselves before the dragon's throne. Kambodia did so most particularly under the Tang dynasty, another race of powerful rulers, who for long ruled eastern Asia. It was at that time a very flourishing state, with a large capital, wherein all the riches of the country were squandered in order to make it a fairy-land, and confer on the king the appearance of a superhuman being. Ivory and gold were most profusely applied to walls, seats, and gates, to enhance the beauty of magnificent buildings, where the court gave audience. The royal residence was situated on one of the branches of the river, and contained above 20,000 houses; and there were 30 cities more, each having 1000. This proves that the country was then more thickly inhabited and in a more flourishing condition than even at present. It appears, however, to have been tributary to Tunkin, the more civilized neighbour, in the eighth century; and it was divided into *Low* and *High Kambodia*—a very natural partition. The connexion with China was continued. About this time occur several wars with the Siamese and Laos, too uninteresting to be related, in which the former, according to their own account, gained the advantage. Kambodia was at that time by far the most civilized portion of the southern peninsula. The natives had



acquired considerable skill in working metals, leaving, however, trade and navigation to foreigners. The kingdom reached in the twelfth century the highest state of civilization and wealth; so that its riches became quite a proverb. The capital had increased to a very great extent, being then the largest city in all these regions. "The walls," as the native historian says, "were built by *angels*, for no mortal could ever produce any thing similar." They still stand a monument of the skill and architecture of ages long passed away.

Such a country naturally attracted the attention of the Monguls, and *Kublai* entertained the intention of subjecting it, with the whole peninsula, to his sway. Death, however, prevented the execution of his design; and his successor, *Ching-tsung*, sent in 1295 an ambassador to feel his way. This grandee appears to have been fond of observation, and he carefully noted down what he saw and heard. He gives to the country the name of *Kamphuche*, which is analogous to the native term, and speaks of the royal residence, *Pontapret*, its five double gates, immense numbers of idols, and vast display of gold. The king seems to have covered himself with gold, pearls, and diamonds, to astonish the Celestial ambassador. But this functionary speaks by no means highly of the natives, whose dark-brown tint, coarse manners, early marriages, and low condition disgusted him. He found many of the most fertile spots on the river entirely uncultivated, and overgrown with a thick jungle, frequently liable to inundation, so that even the trees were covered; the very state in which we see them up to this moment. The productions were the same at that time as they are now; but the country was then far more extensive, 90 districts belonging to it. It had proved victorious in its wars with Siam and Cochin-China, and spread its dominion over the Laos to the frontiers of Tunkin. The immigration of the Chinese appears at that time to have been considerable; in addition to merchants, many colonists possessed tracts of ground, and numerous vagabonds found there an asylum. Whether many returned home, we are not told. It is, indeed, remarkable, that the marriages entered into with native women by the Chinese in the first generation were fruitful, but they gradually became unprolific, and in the fifth generation barren. Of this the writer has seen many instances, but is not able to account for such degeneration between nations in other respects so similar both in their physical conformation and habits of life. Were it otherwise, the Chinese race would become the predominant one, and in a few centuries supersede the aborigines. Such has, however, not been the case, and the numberless immigrants, who con-

stantly pour into these countries, gradually disappear amongst a scattered population.

Siam about this time acknowledged the ascendancy of Kambodia, and became tributary. The country continued successful towards its neighbours even until the middle of the sixteenth century. The Ming dynasty cultivated friendship with this power, and sent rich presents by the Kambodian tribute-bearer, who had laid down the produce of his country before the imperial throne. All Chinese emigrants were henceforth to be furnished with passes by the home government, and none without them were allowed to settle in Kambodia. At a later period, this land owned the Cochin-Chinese sway, was unsuccessful against the Siamese, and reduced to its natural boundaries. It kept up some connexion with Manila, and received an embassy from the early Spanish settlers. The Portuguese found their way likewise to these regions, and traded uninterruptedly for several centuries, principally from Macao. The Dutch maintained for some time a factory at *Pontapret*, and penetrated from hence into the Laos country; and also the English commenced a trade, which was but of short duration. The inhabitants did not improve by so much foreign intercourse. The kings were too fond of war, and had constant quarrels with the Siamese, which are most minutely detailed in their annals. The forced labour to which every male was doomed, if not for six months at least for four, greatly hindered industry and enterprise; also national wealth and prosperity being concentrated in the person of the king, sank with him, when any unforeseen calamity occurred. In 1750 the Annamese took permanent possession of all the territory round Saigon (Ghiadingh). The greatest misfortune, indeed, which could have befallen the country, was the death of king Ongtong in 1785. Throughout Cochin-China anarchy reigned at that time, and to preserve the heir of the throne, a mere child, he was sent with his brother to Bangkok, in charge of the king of Siam, whilst the son-in-law of the late sovereign became regent. In the meanwhile the Siamese tried with all their might to possess themselves of the country, over which their prince had assumed the guardianship. The presumptive heir did therefore not return, after having reached maturity. His cousin conceived it on that account expedient to assume the sceptre and proclaim himself sovereign in 1809. The Annamese espoused his cause, whilst the Siamese defended the legitimate successor. Both parties met near a ridge of mountains which form the boundary of Siam. The Siamese considered it by no means prudent to fight against an enemy drilled in the European manner and far superior in

numbers, with the greater part of the country in his possession. The Annamese, on their part, thought it absurd to enter into a contest for what was really their own already, and thus the diplomatists of both realms deemed it wise to conclude a treaty, according to which each retained what he had conquered. The western province, Battambang, fell to the share of the Siamese, the remainder of the kingdom to Annam, and both established an iron rule over the natives. Whilst the Cochin-Chinese kept nominally the king on the throne, they seized upon all the branches of administration, treating the natives as inferior beings; and the court of Bangkok kept the two princes in honourable exile. The writer has often seen and conversed with them. The youngest possesses an intelligent mind, is fond of painting and mechanics; the eldest, who ought to have been king, speaks very little, and exhibits no great talent. The Siamese often tried to stir up rebellion, and expel the Annamese by means of these pledges, but have never succeeded; the latter always adopting a defensive line of policy and never becoming aggressive. Kambodia, in fact, remains an object of animosity between the two nations, and the Siamese invade it periodically, to kidnap the natives beyond the mountains, and make them slaves, or entice them to abandon their own government and settle in their territory. Kambodia is now virtually blotted from the map of Asia, and the inhabitants suffer from twofold slavery, being the slaves of slaves.

*Tunkin*.—The first Chinese settlers seem to have reached this country about 250 B.C., when the powerful Chehwangte rendered the Chinese arms formidable throughout eastern Asia. Of the gradual progress of their settlements, and of the aborigines who previously occupied the country, history records nothing; but the progress must have been rapid, for a century had scarcely elapsed when the celebrated Woote, of the Han dynasty, divided the country (called by him *Keaouche*, giving rise perhaps to the term *Cochin-China*, from a custom prevalent amongst the natives of putting their toes one on another) into three parts; the one embracing the present Tunkin, the other part of the coast and northern Cochin-China, and the third the southern districts to lat. 15°, incorporating the whole with the Chinese Empire.

About three centuries thus elapsed, during which the national resources were developed, and the people grew in wealth and civilization, the Chinese immigrants increasing tenfold. At the fall of the Han line of princes, and the subsequent anarchy in China, Tunkin seems to have had its own rulers, sharing in the same revolutions and great changes of that time, and be-

coming eventually subject to the kings of Yunnan. This part of the history is, however, very uncertain, and the annals are confused. Some connexion with China was again commenced during the vigorous administration of the Tang princes; when they became extinct Tunkin chose its own king (in 907) in Ting, a usurper. To pacify the Chinese court for his daring, he acknowledged himself a humble vassal, and received the title of *Keun-wang* (a king of the second degree). One of his successors, seeing the Sung emperors fully employed on the northern frontiers against the Tartars, invaded Kwang-se in 1075, and laid waste the Chinese territory with fire and sword. A general of the latter revenged this insult, and penetrated to the *Sung-ka* (Füh-leang in the annals), spreading devastation everywhere. Both parties, therefore, deemed it most advantageous to conclude peace, and Lekeëtso was confirmed king of *Annam* (in Chinese *Gannan*, the pacified south). In these wars, of which several Chinese writers have preserved interesting accounts, young females, not unlike the Maid of Orleans, distinguished themselves by their heroic conduct, and were, consequently, considered by the Chinese as sorceresses.

The *Monguls*, an otherwise very barbarous tribe, seem to have cultivated geography, on purpose to extend their conquests. Scarcely had Kublai ascended the throne of China (1279), when, on hearing of the fertile regions of the south, he resolved to conquer them. To facilitate this enterprise, ambassadors had first to gain information and to pave the way. He himself had previously made a campaign into Yunnan, and thence attacked Birmah. His companions in arms could well endure the cold and fatigues of a Russian winter, but were unable to resist the effects of a tropical heat; scarcely a hundredth part returned to tell the tale of the enervating effects of the climate upon their frames. In nowise daunted by ill success, a new army, easily procured in the extensive steppes of central Asia, poured forth, and took possession of the capital of Tunkin. Their objects at this time appeared only plunder and destruction; and after having obliterated the industry of ages, and slaughtered with unexampled cruelty the inoffensive natives, they were forced to retrace their steps, on account of the epidemical diseases which thinned their ranks. Kublai seems then to have resolved upon the subjugation of the country by means of diplomacy. A distinguished and astute agent appeared at the court of the Tunkin king, laid an enormous tribute of gold, ivory, &c. on the country, stipulated the sending of distinguished doctors, mathematicians, and merchants to the Chinese capital—a circumstance which proves indirectly the flourishing and somewhat advanced state of the country—

and appointed a permanent resident to take care of the interests of the conqueror. The poor king on hearing of these conditions died of fear. His son, Chinge-heuen, perceived that nothing could be gained by submission, and resolved to oppose the enemy. Whilst Kublai considered all southern Asia in his grasp, and his power secured by the above-mentioned treaty, he sent a well-appointed army to take possession of Cochin-China, and thence proceed further south along the coast. Chinge-heuen waited until they were enfeebled by a disastrous march through jungles and swamps, and then successfully attacked them from an ambush. They fled with consternation, and the whole army was nearly annihilated in piecemeal. Such a disgrace could only be wiped out with blood. The bravest troops assembled in Yun-nan to exterminate the resisting Tunkinese. Certain of victory, they neglected all precautions, and when issuing out of the mountain defiles, they were cut up in detail; and the rest of the army, approaching the plains of Tunkin, the cholera made dreadful havoc with it. The Tunkinese perceiving that the Monguls were not invincible, fell upon them with all their might. The few who found their way back, related their misfortunes to the Emperor, and irritated him to such a degree, that he instantly sent a more numerous host. These men fared worse, and the valour of the Tunkinese greatly increased every day. A third campaign convinced the unbending Kublai that his bounds of conquest were restricted by the climate; he was grateful for the humanity shown towards the Tartar prisoners; and, on these being sent back, he granted peace under the promise of a small annual tribute and nominal subjection.

The Tunkinese national spirit was by this effectual resistance greatly raised; the most powerful kingdoms had submitted to the unconquerable Tartar invaders, and this insignificant state successfully repelled their encroachments. The independence of the country therefore lasted till the reign of *Yung-lo* of the Ming dynasty (1403-1424). Then, indeed, a civil war arose; the meritorious Chin, in whose hands the administration had for a long time flourished, was dethroned by an usurper. *Yung-lo* was requested to restore the rightful heir; a numerous Chinese army thereupon invaded the country, and was gladly received by the adherents of the old reign. The rebel was defeated and slain, but the nation had to pay dearly for assistance. Under the plea that none of the rightful princes could be found, *Yung-lo* changed the whole country into a Chinese province, under the rule of a Governor. In many respects this proved advantageous to the people, who were thereby brought into closer contact with Chinese civilization, and its systematical

government. The result of a census gave 3,120,000 families, which, allowing five persons for each, give a population of 15,600,000, a number too large, unless Cochin-China and the adjacent Laos were included. From that time the construction of a map, on the principles and plan of Mongul surveyors also dates, with many other useful institutions; and the Tunkinese youths visited Peking to improve their manners and learning.

The people, however, could not brook foreign dominion, and the rule of Chinese mandarins did not conciliate the affections of the subjugated. Le, a bold partisan, roused the patriotism of his countrymen, and supported by the Laos and Cochin-Chinese, who dreaded a similar yoke, he overthrew, after a long struggle, the Chinese government. His measures were so effective, that no effort was subsequently made to hurl him from the throne. His son and successor, *Le-haou*, tried his ambitious spirit in an attack upon the peaceful Laos. Their king was defeated, the capital ravaged, and the country rendered a desert. This predatory excursion was indeed repulsed by a prince whose family had been sufferers, and *Le-haou* returned to maintain his ascendancy over Cochin-China, which the Chinese attacked. On this occasion a large fleet from Malacca, in the heydays of Malayan influence, came to the assistance of the former, and forced the sons of Han from the shores of Annam.

We know nothing of the foreign intercourse during this time, but the very fact that a fleet of Malay prowls, sufficient in number to cope with the Imperial navy, lay in the harbours, proves some connexion with the Archipelago. There was no doubt all along a regular trade to the straits, but the Tunkinese do not appear to have themselves gone to sea; leaving this to the more enterprising nations of Asia, they were satisfied to sell their goods to their countrymen, in which their women took an active part.

The Portuguese — the pioneers of Eastern navigation — reached this country at a very early period. They established a factory at the capital, and endeavoured to influence the government; but they never gained any territorial acquisition. In 1550 new troubles arose, and violent parties divided the country. *Kea-tsing* reigned then over China; he was by no means slow to avail himself of this favourable opportunity to render Tunkin tributary to his sway. Though the Chinese were successful in the commencement, the inhabitants bore too great a hatred against them, and very soon expelled the invaders.

An enterprising Minister guided at that time the helm of state; his merits were great, and he therefore received the title of lord (*Chua*), which became with the office hereditary in

his family, whilst the king was called Vua (*Dova Bova*). The former, uniting intrigue with real power, kept for many generations the *Vua* in thralldom; and the actual ruler retained the mere shadow of his power. As the country remained tranquil, the nation increased in riches, and the Dutch found it advantageous to establish a factory near the capital. At this time falls the flourishing trade with Japan, then the most enterprising maritime nation in all Asia; and the frequent intercourse with Macao by means of the numerous ships of the Portuguese is arrested.

We have now reached the period when the Vua recovered his legitimate authority (1748), and for ever expelled the domineering major domo. The Tunkin government as much as possible discouraged, from motives of a paltry policy, all intercourse with foreigners. It was impossible to drive them away by main force, but easy to destroy their trade by heavy duties and burthens. In this their mandarins fully succeeded; and since the middle of last century not a single foreign ship has entered. The trade had never been very profitable; but as long as China refused commercial dealings on a large scale, Tunkin offered raw silk on advantageous terms for the Japan market. That advantage was finally merged by opening Canton; and none complained of the lost intercourse with Tunkin. The few Chinese junks which continued to visit the river were rendered harmless by fiscal regulations, and the nation turned its whole attention to internal broils. The history of this country becomes henceforth blended with that of *Annam*, and we must therefore retrace our steps to relate the events that took place in that country.

*Cochin-China*, comprising only a narrow strip of land along the sea-coast, could never become a powerful state if it did not take advantage of its maritime position. Here civilization was subsequent to that of Tunkin, and partly commenced by the sword, during the time of the *Han* dynasty. *Mayuen*, the celebrated conqueror of the South, not satisfied with having planted those brass pillars which were for ever to form the boundary, marched in the full career of victory farther south. There he met with thick forests, and almost insurmountable obstacles. Not regarding these, he caused the axe and fire to smooth the way, and all the country to lat. 15° was thus rendered tributary to China. Its manners, literature, principles, government, &c., were thus faithfully grafted on *Annam*. So distant a possession, being frequently under the influence of grasping mandarins, did not long remain loyal; for in A.D. 263, *Kooleën*, a daring chief, declared his country free. The *Han* had ceased to reign, and China was just then in a state of anarchy.

We may therefore consider *Kooleën* as the founder of the kingdom. After him rose a number of petty chiefs, mere vassals of China, who regularly paid their tribute. Thus they might have remained undisturbed from the north, if China had not produced an Emperor in many respects resembling Louis XIV. of France, in *Yangte*, of the Suy race, A.D. 605—617. He was fond of splendour, luxury, and martial glory, and soon exhausted his treasury, which, notwithstanding the use of every expedient, could not be replenished. Now he had heard of golden mountains in the south, of India's treasures, and forthwith resolved to possess himself of them. The Chinese intruders reached the country, stripped the ancestral temples of the little gold they contained, destroyed the capital, and returned disappointed with their booty. The country, which had hitherto bore the name of *Liné*, was henceforth called, from its new capital, *Chenching*. From this time until 1166 we know little of the events which occurred; a very intelligent sovereign then ascended the throne, and his first endeavour was to open a commercial intercourse with *Haenan*. His merchants finding there very little favour, were expelled from the harbours under the ignominious accusation of having been pirates. No doubt can therefore exist but the *Annamese* were then engaged in navigation, and very probably brought from the south the productions so much desired in China. They had access to the harbours on the main, for allusion is made to their ships periodically visiting the port of Amoy. The king thus frustrated in his benevolent intentions, all at once endeavoured to obtain glory by war, and for that purpose attacked Kambodia by water and land. A very disastrous struggle ensued, in which the Cochin-Chinese, after heavy losses, proved ultimately the victors.

The accession of *Kublai* to the Chinese throne was greeted by the Annam king with assurances of entire submission. The Khan understood the compliment literally, and forthwith dispatched a grandee with a very strong guard to maintain his authority. The officer arrived by sea, and endeavoured to exterminate the last adherents of the Sung princes. These being everywhere hunted down, sought finally refuge in these remote regions. The retinue of the officer was too small to realize all the expectations of his sovereign, and he preferred leaving a country to becoming an object of public violence. The Mongul army about to invade Cochin-China by land was defeated by the Tunkinese. *Kublai* therefore fitted out a splendid fleet, which reached its destination, and laid waste the capital. But the inhabitants, no wise daunted, fled to the mountains, and thence maintained a party warfare, which re-



duced the Monguls in number, and rendered large reinforcements necessary. Kublai's death put an end to those enterprises, and the Cochin-Chinese gloried in their strength, of which they had for the first time made a trial.

The accession of the Ming dynasty was hailed with joy, and rich presents of odoriferous woods accompanied the tribute-bearer, the servant of a tyrannical king. He had a considerable navy, and professed to have taken twenty piratical junks, which no doubt were traders that had approached too near his ports.

The feuds with Tunkin had been of a long standing. Both countries preferred their complaints to China, and many a high mandarin enriched himself on being appointed umpire. Still the causes of jealousy were never removed, and a border war was from time to time waged with great ferocity between two nations so similar in every respect. The Tunkinese had in these struggles the advantage of numbers; the Cochin-Chinese, of daring. But the former being in possession of many resources, finally gained a complete victory (1471), and Cochin-China from that moment became tributary. The attention of the king was henceforth directed to internal improvements, and wars with the Kambodians. The strife of parties and the intrigues of the court form no edifying part of their history. Their name was scarcely known beyond the confines of their own territory. During short intervals their independence was asserted, and again lost.

In the middle of the last century *Voo-tsoi* (the name of his reign was Kaung-shung) sat on the throne. He was an effeminate prince, who, priding himself on the eastern part of Kambodia being permanently attached to his empire, indulged in all the debaucheries of an Eastern court, and appointed eunuchs as rulers. The imposts levied on the nation were very heavy, and the tyranny of the officers exceeded all bounds. The immediate consequences were general poverty and wretchedness, which led to subsequent resistance; and the people, driven to despair, joyfully rallied around three brothers, known under the name of *Ty-son* (western mountaineers) at Quinhon. What profession these men had at first is not known: but some record them to have been merchants and priests; others artisans and agriculturists: they followed perhaps more than one calling. Small was their band when they first became known as robbers, and were proclaimed outlaws. Despair, however, drove the boldest to their standards, and in a short time they ventured to face the royal army. The Tunkin king had in the meanwhile been called upon as liege-lord to settle matters, and appeared in full array on the frontiers.

Voo-tsoi by this time had already suffered a total defeat by the rebels, and lost his crown and life ; his army dispersed, or enlisted under the Ty-sons, and only his consort escaped with his second son (the eldest being killed in battle), to regain at a more fortunate day the royal diadem. Nhak, the leading man of the trio, instantly resolved to push the victory ; and routing the Tunkinese, took possession of the country. The king, driven to the greatest straits, applied to Keenlung, Emperor of China, a warlike monarch, who from his palace dictated orders and sent behests, and without ever entering upon a single campaign, had proved victorious in Turkestan and Sungaria. To increase the splendour of his reign, he took up the case of the defeated Tunkinese king in full earnest, probably with some desire of conquest, and dispatched a large army to the south. Chinese soldiers are excellent as an armed police, but in war worse than useless. It is said that 100,000 men—a number greatly overrated—marched into Tunkin, and falling into marshes and jungle, they were attacked by epidemic diseases, and then on all sides beaten by *Nhak*. Small was the number of those who escaped the slaughter. Up to this day the inhabitants glory in this feat of valour, though the victory was gained by a rebel, for their countrymen overcame the proud Chinese. The Great Emperor, at first so desirous to interfere, hesitated not a moment in acknowledging the victor as king, who forthwith took the name of *Lung-neang* for his reign, and considered himself the rightful possessor of the realm. An attempt upon Saigon proved equally successful ; so that the new usurper believed himself permanently established in his dominions. The cruelty exercised by the army under his command in every excursion beggars all description.

The widow-queen in the meanwhile fled to the south. Her son, even as a boy, betraying precocious talent, took the most lively interest in all her proceedings. Meeting at Saigon several Portuguese and one French vessel, she engaged these in her cause, and attacked the Ty-sons in their stronghold at Quinhon (1781). Her foreign auxiliaries appear not to have been faithful in her behalf, and previous to having effected anything, they retired before a barbarian enemy. The young king now took refuge in the island *Phu-koh*, where a number of his faithful servants flocked around him. But apprehending an unexpected descent of the Ty-sons, he went to Siam, and serving there for several years in the army against the Birmans, performed many heroic actions. The assistance craved was not accorded ; the King of Siam offended the Cochin-Chinese prince by disgraceful demands ; and so this

spirited adventurer left the court to seek again his fortune in the island of Phu-kok.

*Gea-long*—the name which his reign subsequently bore—was a man of a strong mind, well aware of the great superiority of Europeans, and the sincere admirer of their ascendancy. Amongst the missionaries was at that time Bishop Adran, a Frenchman (some say a Belgian), called Behaim Pigneaux, a man of a great mind in worldly matters, and sincerely desirous to assist the exiled family. To him *Gea-long* intrusted his son to proceed directly to France, and procure assistance there. Adran, quick in obeying these directions, concluded a most favourable treaty for his nation, involving the cession of the territory near Turan Bay, (with many other political advantages, which would have made the French masters of the country,) on condition that they should furnish an effective naval and land force for reconquering the lost kingdom for its sovereign. The Governor of Pondicherry, intrusted with part of the execution of the plan, was by no means zealous; the revolution intervened, and all the fruits obtained were confined to the enlistment of some adventurous French officers, who served the king with great fidelity.

Adran remained the guide of the prince for several years, and in joy or sufferings never left him. The first attempt being made on Saigon, the city was recaptured in a short time. The rebel who had obtained from the Chinese the recognition as Emperor died in 1792. His son was only 12 years old; and the uncles, who had done so much for establishing the kingdom, were anxious to seize themselves upon the government,—a circumstance which operated most advantageously for the plans of *Gea-long*. In the same year the latter met *Nhak's* fleet, and obtained a complete victory, reconquering *Quinhon*. In all the enterprises he showed himself the foremost, but nevertheless patiently listened to the advice of his foreign companions. His victories now constantly increased; in 1802 he overcame the third brother of the *Ty-sons*; and the heir of the crown being still young, *Tunkin* bowed likewise to his sway. To heal the wounds which a disastrous war and anarchy of 28 years' duration had inflicted upon the country was no easy matter. Few kings, however, had so great a minister as Adran, both in the camp and cabinet. The army and navy were organized by Europeans; the fortresses laid out according to the most scientific plans; the whole system of government modelled according to that of France; manufactures and plantations promoted, and other benefits created. *Gea-long* refused not only to acknowledge fealty to the Chinese throne, but even threatened the empire with an invasion. Feared

and revered by his people, he was the first great prince that reigned over Cochin-China.

Affairs would probably have taken quite a different course if the French Revolution had not intervened. This Gea-long fortunately escaped, and he annexed, as already related, in 1809, Kambodia to his country. On the pinnacle of glory, however, when he had lost his Mentor, he changed for the worse, and with undeviating rigour pursued the system of concentrating everything in the Government. The nation was to him nothing: he even went so far as to acknowledge that by impoverishing the people the State was most secure against rebellion. With all this civilization, such as no other Asiatic country could show, the people remained in absolute want, and industry was strangled in its very cradle.

The heir of the crown had embraced Romanism, and died; and Gea-long's successor was Mingh-mang (the name of the reign, *illustrious destiny*), in 1819. He never understood the institutions of his father, yet was by no means willing to break all at once with the French. To show his desire of maintaining the previous good understanding, he sent a number of presents and a florid letter to Lewis XVIII. Although he let the improvements continue, he wished to impress on his officers that he intended to revert to Chinese forms, and entirely to tread in the steps of his ancestors. For this purpose he proceeded to the northern frontiers, to undergo the humiliating ceremony of receiving the investiture of his kingdom from a Chinese mandarin in the name of the Emperor, and sent from time to time tribute-bearers to the capital. When the French, in his father's time, dispatched an envoy to insist upon the performance of the treaty concluded through Adran, he most politely refused such a request, would not even see the negotiator, and thus dropped the matter altogether. Mingh-mang went farther, and dismissed one officer after the other, belonging to that nation. The French trade was gradually likewise very much reduced by most obnoxious measures, and French influence a few years after his accession finally ceased. The presence of the British envoy *Crawford*, in 1823, to whom we owe the best description of the country, effected no change. The most liberal promises of trade were never realized; a ship, which wanted to buy a cargo of sugar, could not procure a single pecul; and some Americans who made a similar attempt fared worse, and had to suffer many extortions. The king, on the contrary, did everything in his power to monopolize the principal articles; his men-of-war, either built entirely on a European model, or half-junk and half-ship, were turned into traders, and visited as such

periodically Singapore, Canton, and even Calcutta. The naval mandarins became merchants, and Mingh-mang, whilst reaping gain from these voyages (for sugar and other articles cost him nothing, being produced by forced labour), realized much money. Amongst the orders sent were steamboats and some scientific works, which showed that the spirit of research and improvement was not yet entirely extinct, though languishing. The king had only one idea, which was egotism; and the most crying extortions were exercised to fill his coffers and satisfy his whims. Most serious rebellions therefore arose in various parts of the country, in Kambodia and Tunkin, which were put down with great cruelty; he did not, under such circumstances, consider it advisable to punish the Siamese, who most wantonly provoked a war. When the King of Birmah sent a messenger to suggest joint operations against the Siamese and the opening of intercourse through the Laos country, Mingh-mang refused both, and was glad to have done so, because the former power was soon engaged in a destructive war with England. Foreign trade being nearly annihilated, with the exception of the Chinese, the anti-national system, formerly upheld by Tunkin, was re-introduced.

Mingh-mang died in 1841, in the 21st year of his reign, and 50 years of age, and Thieu-tree succeeded him. This monarch has carried the desire of realizing the Chinese system to the fullest extent into effect; his installation, his humble submission to the Celestial dynasty, and his magnificent embassy to the court of Peking, sufficiently prove that he has reverted to ancient custom. The royal monopoly is in all its vigour; and some mandarins, who were sent to Canton to make purchases, not succeeding in accomplishing the wishes of their sovereign, have received most severe corporal punishment.

For a long while some coolness existed between the French and Cochín-Chinese; the former expected that the favourable change in foreign relations which had occurred in China would produce something similar in Annam. They at least insisted upon the free exercise of Romanism, which had hitherto been most cruelly persecuted. The answer was delayed, and two frigates sailed to Turan Bay in the spring of 1847, to obtain a decisive reply; this appears to have been refused, and some preparations were likewise made on the part of the Annamese to repel the foreigners. The French, however, did not wait for this, but, having received some intimation of a sinister design against them, they attacked the Cochín-Chinese war-vessels in the bay: one was sunk, another blown up, a third burnt, and two others which had hoisted a flag of truce were, after the

engagement, set on fire. The loss of the Annamese appears to have been above 1000 men. This is the first instance of hostility between this country and foreigners from the west; the attack on the British agent in Huë River during the disturbances in 1776 not deserving that name. The king, indignant at this untoward event, gave immediate orders for surrounding the anchorage with fortifications, and hundreds of labourers proceeded to the spot to carry on the work; yet the enterprise was not finished when Sir John Davis arrived in October, 1847, as British Envoy, to conclude a treaty of peace and commerce. His reception was cordial and hospitable, but the king refused to give an audience. Here we conclude the historical sketch of this country, and now turn our attention to the *inhabitants*.

The *Cochin-Chinese*, as well as the *Tunkinese*, are a race of small stature, with great agility of frame, not very dark, and forming in their features the link between the Malays and Chinese. The women excel in the symmetry of their form, fine eyes, and beautiful jet-black hair; the men in their muscular strength, so disproportionate to their diminutive frames. The dress of both sexes is becoming, and nearly alike: consisting of trowsers and a coat reaching to the ankles with women; with workmen only to the knees; but ceremonial costume is always long. Those who can afford it wear several dresses over each other, and it is a mark of distinction and wealth to do so; the uppermost is invariably of silk, black being the favourite colour, the underclothes are generally filthy and shabby. The men do not shave or cut the hair frequently, but tie it together in a knot, and wear a turban on the head of black and blue crape, the latter most frequently by the women, and in rainy weather sugar-loaf broad-brimmed hats. Those who lay a claim to gentility wear long sleeves and nails; most people go barefoot; the higher orders use slippers, fishermen and the lowest working classes are not unfrequently seen naked in hot weather, as in Japan. Ornaments, such as bracelets, &c., are sparingly worn by the women.

Their principal food is fish and rice; they are very gross feeders, their stomach refusing nothing—not even putrid meat or vermin. To all the produce of the cow they have a settled aversion; their meals are generally sparing, consisting of the cheapest condiments, with balachary and similar preparations to season the rice; at festivals they indulge in many dishes, the most delicious of which are hatched chickens in the egg, and are fond of presenting the meat on the table in the forms of animals. They are a nation that with little sustenance can bear great fatigue, and are fond of liquor of every description,

drunkenness not being considered a vice. Their dwellings much resemble the Chinese, but are inferior: a great part of the nation living in mud or bamboo huts, with straw roofs, low and uncomfortable; these remain in a state of filth, without either sweeping or cleaning.

The *Annamese* are a cheerful race of people. The author has lived amongst various tribes of Asiatics, but he has never found such friendly companions as they are: so free and unsophisticated, so ready to oblige, so open and kind; yet they are fickle and restless in their disposition, subject to sudden impulses, and not faithful to their promises. The higher classes, and especially the *mandarins*, imitate the Chinese in their grave behaviour, and with them mirth is a crime.

The females predominate in number; they do not live secluded, but carry on all crafts and professions, enter on commerce, plough the ground, and perform all the labour of the men, whose services belong to the king. A *Cochin-Chinese* wife is a helpmate indeed, and often maintains her husband. Marriages amongst the mass of the people are not entered upon before twenty years of age, amongst the higher classes earlier; the wife is a slave to her husband, and has scarcely any privileges. Though there are very severe laws against the breach of matrimonial fidelity, the *Annamese* are nevertheless in this respect very loose in their manners, and it is by no means a disgrace to a girl to have lost her virginity. It is an honour to have children, and in a country where they can be so easily fed families that have many consider themselves rich. All classes chew the *betel-nut*, and smoke incessantly; two bags that contain these necessities of life, with the money, are thrown, tied on strings, over the shoulder, and denote a certain degree of respectability, only that they cannot be worn in the presence of higher personages.

The system of slavery which the Government has enforced on the nation has much debased the character. Every male belongs to the king, and must either enlist in the army or work one-third, if not one-half, of the year for the sovereign without pay; this produces a spirit of listless indifference in regard to property, and the heavy and inhuman punishments inflicted often for the most trivial faults, renders the heart callous and the character cringing. The nation is debased by a consistent system of tyranny, which incessantly grinds it down, and reduces the people to poverty and wretchedness.

The doctrines of Buddha are *pro formâ* professed by a very few; the mass does not care for supernatural worship, and is subject to the most abject superstition. The *Annamese* may be said to be far more irreligious than even the Chinese:

with few temples, still fewer priests, mendicants by profession, and differing little from the Bonzes of China; the mandarins naturally profess a deep veneration for the doctrines of Kung-foot-sze, and thus despise religion altogether as gross superstition. The veneration for the departed dead is general, and the temples containing their tablets are the most sacred spots of worship.

The *language* of Annam shows a great mass of monosyllabic words, originally used by the aborigines, on which the Chinese was grafted and so thoroughly amalgamated as to constitute one whole. There are sounds which are not met with in any of the numerous dialects of the Celestial Empire, and which the Chinese cannot even pronounce: such as *ra*, *roi*, *rum*, *trang*, *krang*, &c.; *truong*, *glory*; *doam phuok*, *fortune*; *rauri*, *anger*; &c. The language is by no means mellifluous, and is spoken with extraordinary rapidity by the natives. For many ideas there are Chinese and aboriginal words, as with us Latin and Saxon; the Chinese is more in use with the higher classes, who pride themselves on their learning in that tongue. For abstract subjects the Chinese alone stands, but all ordinary things in life have names originally derived from the language of the aborigines.

The language has no inflection whatsoever, for the genitive not even a particle: this is indicated by position merely,—*sach konnit*, the child's book. All grammatical niceties are conveyed by particles, in which the language abounds, and which constitute the skeleton of the whole. The construction is natural and simple: inversion producing a change of the sense, whilst the once-constituted order leaves not the least ambiguity; the tones being so full that they can be distinctly conveyed by our letters, although the intonation can never be expressed, the Annamese adopted from their teachers the Chinese characters to write their ideas. Not yet satisfied with 30,000 symbols, for the acquisition of which a whole life scarcely proves sufficient, they moreover framed from these materials many others of their own, unintelligible to the Chinese, and confounded the meanings with each other. Thus the written medium became more difficult than even in China, and the acmé of perfection was sought in being able to draw and explain the greatest possible number of ideological signs. How much this retards the acquisition of real knowledge, when so many years are necessary merely to learn to read, need not to be stated; and the nation, as a whole, can only then rise in the scale of nations when a syllabary or *alphabet* is adopted; the lower classes have been forced to use this expedient, employing a small number of characters as a syllabary to convey sound,



not meaning, and thus express their ideas according to the ear. The attempt, however, is exceedingly clumsy, and the people are not agreed in the various provinces; so that this written medium presents a real Babel, whilst the professional *literati* look down upon it with the utmost contempt.

Annam has no literature of its own: whatever it possesses is Chinese, with its small range of ideas and stereotyped thoughts. The Annamese possess all the agricultural skill of the Chinese, their industry and perseverance, but are impeded in following out their desires by incessant calls on the part of Government for their gratuitous labour. There remain every year more than 100,000 peculs of *rice* for exportation; the cultivation of the sugar-cane, as well as the preparation of *sugar*, has of late years much improved, because this commodity furnished the best article for the royal monopoly; the Chinese at present engage, as also in Kambodia, in planting it, and the sugar vies now in goodness of quality with what comes from Siam. We do not think that the present exportations are below 70,000 peculs, a great part of which finds its way to the northern ports of China, but sells below the Formosa sugar. Cotton is of the best quality; and if we assign 60,000 peculs for exportation, principally to Canton, we shall not be very wrong. There is much *raw-silk*, principally for home consumption, produced; the Tunkinese are the best silk-cultivators, but have not yet learnt to adapt their staple to the foreign market. We do not believe that the whole exportation exceeds 1500 peculs per annum; much of this is resold at Canton to Parsee merchants, for the consumption of India. Amongst the staple articles cinnamon ranks very high, being universally used throughout China as an excellent specific in medicine. Including the coarser kinds the whole exportation amounts perhaps annually to 4000 peculs. In the southern parts the *cocoa-nut* grows very luxuriantly, and hence large exportation of the oil takes place. *Cardamoms* are another article, of which China takes perhaps 1000 peculs per annum. Of *betel-nut* the junks take to the same country perhaps 30,000 peculs. The royal monopoly in *eagle-wood* is considerable, and an annual exportation of 300,000 dl. is not much under the mark; this must first be carefully pounded and prepared, and the quality is determined by the amount of *aromatic oil* it contains. The exportation of dye-woods is limited, owing to the want of enterprise on the part of the Kambodians.

Of *sticklac*, the product of an insect like the cochineal, and of gamboge, perhaps 50,000 dollars' worth are annually sold. Of the *Dioscorea alata*, spoken of before, the Tunkinese export at least 50,000 peculs. If the fisheries yield

100,000 dollars for exportation, after supplying the large consumption of the people at home, we may form some idea of this branch of industry. Annam and Kambodia export chiefly to China a larger quantity of ivory, elephants' hides and bones, as well as of rhinoceros' bones, than any other country.

The above is the raw produce prepared for the foreign market. The Annamese have not sufficient manufacturing skill to prepare any articles for foreign consumption; they weave their own cloth, which is homely enough, using also the stuffs of China, as well as, to a small extent, our woollens and calicoes, with the silks of the former country. Tunkin manufactures a kind of light summer cloth, which is so cheap that even the Chinese can export it thence at an advantageous rate. In all other articles for the convenience of life the Annamese are still children; the Tunkinese rank next to their masters the Chinese, and excel only in the preparation of lacquer-ware. There is a kind of durable silk stuff which the Kambodians prepare and also sell to the neighbouring nations. Whilst the mass of the nation still remains ignorant of manufacturing skill, the king has surrounded himself with the best artisans that can be procured. The men solely work as slaves for their master, often without the least remuneration; and hence it is very common that individuals who excel in their profession hide their superiority as much as possible, lest their art might be made tributary to the court.

Since the supreme government has monopolized all the branches of production and industry, the amount of trade on account of the king has very much increased, both to Canton as well as to Singapore: the establishment of this latter settlement has given great development to the Annam commerce in general, and the only manufacture of the south, viz., *salt*, has always found there a ready sale.

The principal foreign trade of Cochin-China is with the Chinese, the junks of whom repair to Saigon, Faifo, Hué, Kacho, and several of the minor harbours: the average number has been roughly rated at 300 small and large vessels, carrying from 150 to 6000 peculs. The general exports are those before mentioned; the imports are silk piece-goods of various descriptions, the coarser kinds of teas, and coarse china-ware, besides a great variety of Chinese manufacture, such as paper, cotton stuffs, &c., which are pretty generally consumed, whilst the junks from Singapore and other ports bring iron, opium, cotton manufactures, woollens, cutlery, &c.

The principal trade exists with the various emporiums of Haenan: the junks are very small that start from thence to Tunkin and Hué, as well as Faifo; they exchange home pro-

duce and export a great deal of rice: their number is never under 200, some of which make three voyages per annum, principally to Tunkin: the adjacent districts of Kwangtung likewise carry on a small coasting trade. The junks which have most valuable cargoes come from Canton both to Tunkin as well as to Cochin-China and Kambodia, but those of Teocheo (Chaouchoo) are more numerous, and their countrymen being the principal merchants, the trade is very profitable: there are a few from Amoy, and now and then a straggler from Shanghae. The Fokeën Chinese have, however, never been able to extend their trade materially: a number of vessels which load at Saigon annually visit Teëntsin, principally with *betel-nut*.

Of the internal trade to Kwangtung, Kwangse, and Yunnan, we know little, though mutual wants have created a considerable intercourse. In looking over the imports given in the Chinese custom-house book, we find a variety of provisions, such as rice, dried venison, stag-antlers, and especially salt-fish, drugs of various descriptions, incense, aromatic woods, betel-nut, the Chooleang, metals, and alum, verdigris, wax, varnish, timber, &c., which are imported from Tunkin, whilst China sends fans, caps, umbrellas, clothing, and a few piece-goods in exchange. Many of the goods thus obtained from Tunkin are again exported from Canton.

There is a little trade with the Laos in horses, elephants, ivory, rhinoceros'-horns, drugs, aromatics, silver and gold. Manufactures for clothing and domestic use are given in exchange by the Tunkinese, who realize often large profits with these simple people. The coasting trade with Siam in small miserable vessels, carried on by Kang Cao and Saigon, is very insignificant.

The internal trade is facilitated by canals and roads constructed, with an immense expense of human life, at the suggestion of the celebrated Adran. The oppressive measures of Government much hamper the native trader, for every vessel must take a quantity of public stores for nothing, and the exertions through a canal and sea-voyage are numerous.

Vessels trading to the Cochin-Chinese harbours pay a moderate measurement duty, which is lowest at Hué and highest at Saigon. Junks that come from Teochoo pay least of all, craft on imports nothing; on exports of luxuries 5 per cent., on timber, &c., 10 per cent. The state does not wish to profit by trade or to encourage it, being persuaded that it will prove ruinous in the end to the country.

Government casts cash in imitation of the Chinese, but of baser metal—*zink*, with the name of the reign on it, of which

600 pieces subdivided into decimals are put on a string called a *kwan*, which circulate at the rate of 5-6 times the actual value of the original cost. They are called dong (copper), and form the most objectionable monetary medium possible. The gold and silver pieces issued by Government are mostly of an oblong form, like Chinese ink: the largest piece of silver is named nen bak, and of gold nen vang, the gold one valuing 488 Company's rupees, the silver one 32, with 5 per cent. alloy. Gold pieces of one half the weight are more frequently met with; single ounces of gold (*dinh vang, golden nail*), and of silver (*dinh bak, silver nail*), as well as half and quarter ounces, are issued in far greater quantities than the above: all have the name of the reign during which they were cast upon them. Lately the king coined pieces in imitation of our dollar (*Tambak tran or Bakchien phe*), in weight 420 grains troy; but the adulteration of the metal is so great that the real value only amounts to 1-6 rupee. The relative value of the *silver* compared with the *zink* currency fluctuates very much—ordinarily two *kwan* are exchanged for one *Tambak tran*. The mass of the people is seldom in possession of silver and gold: there is only one rich man in the country, the *king*, and he takes a pleasure in hoarding bullion; the measures of length and capacity are nearly the same as in China.

We have hitherto only spoken of the *Annam* race, and it will now be necessary to remark briefly on the *other tribes* who inhabit the country.

The most numerous are the *Kambodians*, a race at present below the Siamese in point of civilization, with coarse features and dark complexion, and less of the Tartar countenance than any other *Indo-Chinese* nation. The men go half naked and the women also dress very sparingly, the higher orders only wearing sandals and the majority of the people going barefoot. They are moderate in their diet—a basin of rice and some salt-fish are all they desire for their daily food; they can even with this endure much fatigue and hard work. They are slavish in their veneration to their superiors, and willingly endure the most brutal treatment without murmuring. Laziness is a national defect, which is considerably increased by the Government robbing the people of the fruits of their labour. The *Kambodians* are patient in enduring cruelty, and always ready to sacrifice themselves for their mandarins: they have ancient laws, enforced with great strictness, and are trained from their youth to obedience. Polygamy is generally permitted, but only the nobility avail themselves of it, the concubine or second wife being indeed not far above the level of a slave. Pride and falsehood are not their besetting sins; a

Kambodian is rather rude than deceitful : they are much given to the worship of *Buddha*; their priesthood is numerous, embracing a great part of the adult males. The monasteries contain the little learning possessed by the nation, which consists in a trifling knowledge of the *Palee*, the language of their sacred books. Though their own literature is considerable, a priest considers it beneath him to know the works of his countrymen. The art of printing has never been introduced, and the books which now circulate are mostly written on palm-leaves, and are the productions of earlier ages. The language is harsh, more polysyllabic than any of the neighbouring ones, without inflexion, but comparatively rich : it contains many Siamese and Annamese words, yet differs materially from both tongues, having retained little of the system of intonation. The *Kambodians* are persevering agriculturists, loth to leave their own country and visit foreign parts : they possess no manufacturing skill, nor do they show any ambition to improve in civilization. Being enthralled by the priesthood and devoted to Buddhism, the nation stands as a mere blank, without a prospect of amelioration unless awakened by Christianity.

The inhabitants of *Tsiampa* (*Loi* or *Kwan loi* in Annamese) had a sterile soil for their inheritance : perhaps therefore they engaged in navigation to supply their wants. One of the rajahs having married in the fifteenth century a *Javanese* princess, would indicate some connexion with that island. Little is known of the country, nor does any celebrity attach to the natives, who being strict followers of *Buddha*, by turns became subject to the Kambodians and Annamese, but have remained vassals to the latter for a century. The oppression of their new masters has forced the people into mountain fastnesses, and the Cochin-Chinese, to control them, have erected many fortifications and keep up large garrisons.

The numerous *Moi* (mountaineers) tribes have yet escaped the knowledge of every traveller : they appear to be a hardy race, with a muscular frame, and hence well fitted for slaves. Of their religion, customs, and manners we yet know nothing, and the Annamese take a pleasure in describing them as *wild beasts*, though they are probably their ancestors, from whom, by a mixture with the Chinese, the present race sprang, and in fact the same here as the *Meaoutsze* are in China.

We may here speak of the *Christians* in *Annam*. The Portuguese having established their trade, considered it their sacred duty as true Romanists to promulgate their faith. The chaplains of their vessels were at first considered the proper men for effecting this purpose, but they did not show much zeal until Ruiz, a Spanish Franciscan, with some companions, in 1583,

commenced his labours. After him two Jesuits set sail for this country in 1615: though one of them fell a sacrifice to his zeal, Rhodes resumed the work with his companions and penetrated into *Tunkin* in 1627, where he converted many to popery. The congregations, notwithstanding all vicissitudes, increased; other orders likewise laboured, and there were in the seventeenth century about 400,000 individuals (not including the convents in *Kambodia*) numbered to the Romish church. The conversions were easy; a man accepted the Romish rosary for that which the Buddhists used, substituted for his household gods some images of saints, kept the festivals, repeated prayers, and he thus became a Christian. Priests and friars from *Manila* laboured hard in this matter, and under persecution and sacrifice of human life, most cruelly effected the shrine of idols in conformity with the laws laid down by the Inquisition. In *Adran* they found an enlightened advocate, a man both worldly wise and anxious to promote *Romanism*. The converts rapidly increased, as the supreme government made no opposition. On the restoration of the pope the missions were renewed with full vigour, and the French took a leading part. Bishops and simple missionaries flocked to the country: the old king remained neutral, without making any difficulty. Subsequently *Minghmang*, fearing the too great ascendancy of foreigners, instituted a persecution of the most horrible nature, in which the foreign missionary and native convert shared together. Of the 425,000 Christians said to have lived in the country, many had to seal their confession of the *Virgin Mary* and firm belief in the saints with their blood, and the foreign missionaries were in nowise behind in this respect. Notwithstanding all this, new attempts have been made to supply the place of those who died in wretched prisons or on the scaffold, and a host of French priests\* have from time to time penetrated into the country. On a recent visit of some British naval officers the Roman Catholics believed them to be sent for religious purposes, and came out in crowds to salute them, begging to be confessed. The present king acts with great severity against this religion, and a Chinese captain of a junk was beheaded because he had brought with him a French bishop, whilst the crew was sent into banishment. Most of the *Chinese* colonists are from *Teo-choo*, a district on the east of *Kwangtung* province: they are merchants, artisans, and common workmen, and as they are not subject to the oppressive law of gratuitous labour

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\* Since 1666 there have been of that nation 16 bishops and 80 French missionaries in Cochin-China; in Tunkin 17 bishops and 47 missionaries. There are at present 40 priests, and in Tunkin alone 80 native preachers, besides Spanish Dominicans. In Cochin-China Proper there are about 8000 Christians, in Tunkin about 360,000.

to the State, they have great advantages over the natives. Whoever is lawfully married to a native woman becomes *bonâ fide* a citizen, and his children are not allowed to leave the country, and are treated as if they were actually *Annamese*.

The few descendants of Portuguese settled in *Kambodia* we need not mention, or some thousand *Malays*, who have also been domesticated there. There reside other rude tribes, whose names we do not even know; being few, they are scattered, and remain in a savage state.

*Political Divisions.*—*Kambodia* was originally divided into six provinces, viz., *Dong-nai*, *Quiduk*, *Sadek*, *Metho*, *Kamao*, and *Teksea* — names, though politically extinct, still, in the mouths of the people, are far more in use than the new ones applied by the *Cochin-Chinese*. These are *Go-sat-tran*, *Hateen*, *Nam-vang*, *An-giang*, *Vinh-than*, *Dinh-tuong*, *Phan-yen*, *Bien-hoa*. *Go-sat-tran* comprises the N.W.; the southern part is not unfrequently named *Gea-dinh*, and the northern mountainous division *Nocor Khamer* (the native term attached to it), without any subdivision. Our former general geographical remarks have given the outline of the country; we now add that *Laopheên-paou* is the northernmost city on the *Mekom*, a place of some trade, where the *Kambodians* mix with the *Laos*. About 20 g. m. farther to the S.E. on the same river is *Ban-chan*, *Koolatheên*. In lat. 16° is the N.W. frontier town towards *Siam*, placed in a wilderness. *Lak-khon* is on the left bank of the river, and principally inhabited by *Laos*, this being one of their most flourishing establishments. *Than-lao-thak* is in 15° 20' N. lat., and *Muong-hong* in 14° 20', both on the right side of the river; *Kaba-than* is lower down; *Tinh-suong* amongst the mountains in the *Moi* country; *Suk-la* and *Suk-xoi*, with *Kamon*, are frontier towns on the boundaries of the *Bat-tambang* province. Of all the above-mentioned places none contains more than 20,000 inhabitants, who either live in small bamboo huts, or, if wealthy, in dwellings made of planks. Some have been fortified by the sagacious *Annamese*; and if it were not for this circumstance they would not deserve the title of *towns*. The inhabitants, accustomed to poverty, have never had any intercourse with foreigners to feel the want of their commodities. Amongst them are many excellent hunters, bold enough to meet the elephant and tiger in deadly combat: the latter animal is frequently tamed here and exported, to be sold for even less than a buffalo. With the hides and dried flesh of *stags*, which are frequently met with, a considerable trade is transacted in the towns on the coast, and the meat principally sent to *China*. The antlers and sinews furnish there a delicacy which only the rich can afford, and are sold at very high prices. All the parts of a

tiger, from the skin to the very bones, are exported to China: the gall, in particular, is in much request amongst military officers, who make a mixture of it, and drink it to inspire them with courage: they also sleep on the skin, so that the inhabitants find hunting a very profitable employment. The chase is, indeed, the only profession they carry on to perfection; their fields are indifferently cultivated, and they have no manufactures.

Of the ancient capital *Pompaipret* (Vinh-lung) on the *Bien-ho* (Great Lake) we have already spoken. The walls are still standing, and fully prove that it must have been a very large city, with an immense number of inhabitants. There are the ruins of magnificent and extensive temples, the substructions of palaces and antique sculptures, all in heaps of rubbish, without attracting the slightest attention from the existing generation.

The present capital, which does not contain much above 30,000 inhabitants, and these in the most abject poverty, is *Columpé* (Nam-vang-than, in Annamese), on a branch of the river flowing out of the lake, and joining the *Mekom*. It is admirably situated for trade, and a few Chinese have availed themselves of these natural advantages to carry on their traffic. The present king lives under the oppressive hand of the Annamese, in a humble manner, with inadequate revenues, and almost forsaken by his own subjects. Strictly watched by the conquerors, and treated with contempt by the Kambodians themselves, his lot is by no means enviable.

Of all the cities of lower Kambodia *Laigon* stands foremost. The depth of the river on which it is placed, its vicinity to the sea, and its extensive inland communication, constitute it an important emporium. The entrance is at *Kangeo*, a miserable fishing village amidst jungle, and surrounded by a wilderness that swarms with tigers and serpents.

The country, however, soon afterwards improves; large rice-fields are observed through the thick foliage; the river continues very deep, and the ascent leads to two of its branches, both of which fall, at a short distance, E. and W. into the sea. The population is here considerable, and several manufactures of coarse silk stuffs are said to exist not far from this spot. *Saigon* is about 30 English miles from the sea: but before reaching that place the traveller arrives at *Pingeh*, the residence of the provincial governor; a city with many new fortifications built after European principles, with arsenals and docks for the building of war-vessels, and a large population with a considerable trade. *Saigon* is situated about 3 miles farther, upon an insignificant branch of the river; and though the principal trading town, it does not admit any but small vessels. Both are intersected by



many canals full of boats, like Chinese towns; for many people live here continually on the water. One may see here the very large *Kambodia* timber, of which a single plank will sometimes measure 100 feet; and the largest boats are hollowed out of a single trunk. It is also so cheap that nowhere can vessels be built at so low a rate; and the king paying nothing either for materials or workmen, his navy is the cheapest in the world. The streets are broad and lined with bamboo shops, the Chinese alone having respectable houses. Provisions being very cheap, one scarcely ever meets a pauper; but the mass of the people possess little beyond the necessities of life, as they are kept in a state of poverty by the Government. At the commencement of this century the foreign trade was considerable, especially with Portuguese vessels; now, indeed, not a single ship enters the harbour, which, by its deep river and variety of natural productions, is superior to any other in *Annam*.

*Dong-nai* lies two days N.E. of this city, to which it is joined by an excellent canal. Being the ancient capital, under the *Kambodian* reign, of the province to which it gave its name, it is, up to this day, visited by Chinese merchants for the sake of trade. The betel-nut obtained here is of the best description. The city itself is far below *Saigon* in extent, which some estimate to have 180,000 inhabitants. The left bank of the river is thickly inhabited. We find the large city *Bien-hoä*, towards the N., a very thriving place, on the same canal as the former: *Lai-thu* and *Go-kong* are placed on the very banks of the river; farther inland, *Dahan*, *Dongmon*, *Rach-choäi*, *Kamro*, and other places, with a numerous population. On the right bank are *Phun-yen-tran*, the chief town of a district, *Tanan*, and others. The Delta, by reason of the frequent inundations and impenetrable forests, is far less inhabited.

We now approach the northern branch of the *Mekom*, a country teeming with the fruits of the earth like Egypt. Not far from the entrance is *Dinh-tuong* city, a place of some importance. We find, on pursuing a north-westerly course, *Becan*, *Bach-san*, *Canto*, and *Bai-cham*. The rice-fields are here of the most luxurious description, and the crops seldom fail; yet there exists still greater fertility in the country between the two branches, where we find *Tra-on*, near the mouth of the southern branch; then *Vung-lim*, *Kaudong*, *Tham-buon*, and other places. The whole presents here one level of rice-fields, similar to the plain in the neighbourhood of *Bong-koh*. The natives, notwithstanding this great abundance, are very poor, and reside in wretched hovels.

On the right shore of the southern branch (also called *Onbequaeme*) we perceive the same luxuriant vegetation and exten-

sive cultivation : the principal place is *Trandidao*. There are other cities, such as *Ba-hat*, *Rach-rit*, *Chaudok-don*, and *Pak-kam*.

The south-western part of *Lower Kambodia* is far less inhabited. On the coast we find a few inhabitants ; but farther inland immense, and, in most places, impenetrable jungles present themselves, which render cultivation difficult. *Hateèn* (*Kangkaou*) we have already mentioned ; it is a thriving city on account of Chinese industry. *Giang-than* and *Rach-vaok* are likewise towns of some extent. To the N. of *Kang-kaou* the country becomes very mountainous, and total solitude reigns there amongst the forests and the most exuberant foliage—the abode of monkeys and tigers.

Looking at *Kambodia* we find that, although never esteemed highly by Europeans, it is nevertheless a region of importance—with many cities, abundant resources, natural beauties, and scenery well worth exploration.

*Cochin-China* is divided into the following districts, beginning with the S. :—*Bin-thuan*, *Nha-trang*, *Phu-yen*, *Qui-nhon*, *Hoàng-nai*, *Quang-nam*, *Quang-duk*, *Quang-tri*, *Quang-bin*, *Ngne-an*.

Of the sterility of the southern part, which embraces *Tsiampa*, we have spoken before ; yet its sandy soil bears productions peculiar to this region, and nowhere else is the *eagle-wood* superior. The country has not lost by being made a province of *Annam* ; for though the nationality of the inhabitants may be merged in that of the Annamese, more industry than ever prevails now in this sterile district. There are, however, fertile spots, amongst crags and rocks, on which many cities are built ; such as *Phu-giai*, *Bin-thuan-denh*, the seat of government ; *Kana-oai-mat*, *Tamhung*, *Chornai*, *Song-lung*, *Maé-nuong*. The former capital, near the *Cam-ranh* bay, has scarcely any ruins to testify that it was once the residence of an independent prince.

The province of *Nha-trang* is superior to the former in cultivation, though frequently exposed to the inroads of the mountaineers (*Môi*), and now likewise of the *Tsiampese*, a nation disgusted with the new rulers, and possessing the fastnesses amongst the mountains. A number of small places are situated towards the coast : the principal are—*Bin-hoa-thanh*, *Thuy-trieu*, *Bathap*, *Nung-gang*, *Cau-kheo*, *Binh-kang*, *Haduk*, *Thien-pak*, *Daian*, *Hodin*, *Bong-nai*, and *Kung-da-bid*. Towards the mountains exist only insignificant villages, inhabited by mixed races, of *Annamese*, *Tsiampese*, and *Mois*. The *Cochin-Chinese* call this and the former region *Thuon-thieng*. Immense labour has been bestowed by the present Government in fortifying the country against all attacks. Millions have been expended, and thousands of soldiers are requisite to keep a scattered population in sub-

jection, with no corresponding advantages derived from these precautionary measures.

If *Nha-trang* be the largest, *Phu-yen* is the most fertile of all Cochín-Chinese provinces: it abounds in grain, leguminous plants, and all the articles of sustenance used by man. On both sides of the ridge of mountains which intersects it are numerous cities—such as the capital, *Phu-yen-dinh*; also *Vung-mu*, *Kung-binh-phu*, *Vin-cu-mong*, *Hoa-vong*, *Trieu-tuy*, *Chan-thach*, and others; and to the W. of the mountains, *Deo-koo-mung*, *Kung-kwang-de*, *Ben-ngua*, *Bang-tre*, *Hoa-chaou*, and several more. The land seems to be quite a paradise; and were it not for the oppressions of Government it would be one of the most charming spots on the globe.

*Qui-nhon* is, in cultivation and civilization, very little behind the former. As the seat of rebellion, whence the *Tysons* issued, its fame has never been buried in oblivion. The productions are various in a varied soil, and high mountains are only found towards the *Moi* country. There is seen *Tyson-thuong*, a city whence the rebels, who proved such a scourge to the country, came. The eastern part is also known under the name of *Bin-dinh-tran*. Most of the cities are towards the sea, as *Bin-dinh-than*, a strongly fortified town, *Mekung*, *Guthe*, *Nuok-man*, *Chomoi*, *Nhadoi*, *Govang*, *Song-kan*, *Muonglo*, *Suoi-lam*, *Tan-kwang*, *Ansan Benda*, *Dong-hau*, and other places of note. The inhabitants exert themselves to the utmost to improve their lands, but in so doing they render them tributary to the rapacity of Government.

*Quang-ngai* is a small mountainous country which grows a considerable quantity of sugar: its capital is *Ding-quanh-ngai*. The inhabitants are many; and there is no want of cities and villages, such as *Laoi-ca*, *Dong-ngo*, *Hoa-song*, *Ho-vom*, and *Trung-son*.

The celebrated harbour of *Turan* is situated in *Quan-nan* province: sugar and cinnamon are here the principal productions. It is far less inhabited than the former; and besides the capital, *Quang-nam-dinh*, we merely mention *Faefo* (Hueian), *Kung-ngai-kho*, *Chondön*, *Tra-dinh*, *Phu-thuong*, and *Bunghe*. The people are enterprising in their fisheries and well adapted for sailors. Their industry has to force a sterile soil to be productive. To the celebrated marble mountains, not far from the above bay, we have already alluded. The caverns they contain resemble natural domes. The most remarkable circumstance is, that they rise in a plain near the sea, without any connexion with other mountains.

*Quang-duk*, also called *Hué-phu*, is now approached; there the capital is situated. Being a small district, and considered

as the royal domain, it appears to be barren, but, on nearer examination, fertile spots are seen interchanged with romantic hills.

The capital, about 6 miles from the sea, on the bank of a river—called by the natives *Phu-thua-thien*, by foreigners *Hué*, or *Sun-Hué*—proves the foresight of *Gia-long*. Aware of the miseries of a civil war, he wished to establish a stronghold for the royal family; consequently a regular fortification was raised, about 6 miles in circumference, in the form of a square with a deep ditch, and a canal to communicate with the adjoining country. Cannon after the best models were cast, as well as shot and shells. A large garrison in barracks surrounding the palace was appointed, and extensive granaries were filled with corn. On examining these works, one is forced to acknowledge that there does not exist a single town in all Asia possessing such admirable fortifications; but the palace itself exhibits nothing extraordinary. The suburbs are broad enough, yet the houses indicate poverty: neither the bustle of a capital nor the trade of manufactures exists. With the exception of a few Chinese, the people are poor; the soldiers and their officers have barely sufficient for their subsistence; the mandarins, who bask in the sunshine of the court, have a tolerable income, though the king alone can be called wealthy. In the neighbourhood are several palaces, summer residences, and royal retreats: the city itself with the suburbs, including the military, has perhaps not above 50,000 inhabitants. Its central position and romantic environs may have led the rulers to settle there, whilst other places presented far greater natural advantages.

A few smaller places lie here around; such as *Long-truoy*, *Cau-hai*, *Bhong-lam*, *Dahan*, and others, none of which however are of any importance. A few miles W. of *Hué* a high range of mountains runs nearly N. and S.; dense forests succeed, and behind a second ridge, of more difficult approach than the former, the country of the *Laos* commences.

Proceeding farther north-west, we arrive in *Quang-tri*, a well cultivated and thickly inhabited province. The cities are numerous; for, besides the flourishing metropolis of the same name, we find *Kambo*, *Xu-yen-lam*, *Hu-yen*, *Minhling*, *Thuy-ba*, *Saou-kat*, *Bagnoat*, &c., and towards the wall of separation, a strong fortification in the direction of the sea, called *Quang-bin-dinh*. There are few spots in the whole empire so adroitly rendered tributary to the use of man. On the south-western extremity there is a valley surrounded by the very high mountains, called *Ailao-don*, a place of banishment, on account of the insalubrity of the climate. It is a dreary spot, from whence the thick jungles of *Quang-binh* extend in unbroken succession.

The latter district has only recently been added to the Empire, and was in times of yore looked upon as belonging to the Laos country.

On the other side of the wall we enter *Boshinh-trong*. The eastern part of this district is well inhabited; *Da-mai*, *Kebung*, *Dinh-ngoi*, *Kehoe*, and *Hunh-trung* were formerly frontier fortresses; at present they are cities, and the abodes of industry.

The largest of all the provinces is the northernmost, *Nghe-an*, an extensive champaign country, possessing rice-fields, a vast agricultural population, and a few cities, as *Loodong*, *Kon-nam*, *Hatiah*, *Anlae*, and *Vinh*. Towards the west, the country grows very mountainous, and improves in grandeur the nearer it approaches the Laos territory. There is a considerable trading town, *Nga-ba-song*. The two latter provinces formerly belonged to *Tunkin*, and are now permanently added to *Cochin-China*, for the security of the frontier.

*Tunkin* itself is divided into the following provinces:—*Thanh-noi*, *Thanh-ngoi*, *Hung-hoa*, *Nam-thuong*, *Nam-ha*, *Hae-dong*, *Kinh-bak*, *Son-tay*, *Kao-lang*, *Lang-bak*, *Thae-nguyen*, *Tuyen-kwang*, and *Quang-yen*. This country is so little known to foreigners, that our observations will necessarily be very brief.

The two southernmost, *Thanh-noi* and *Thanh-ngoi*, exhibit the same features as the conterminous province of *Cochin-China*; viz. continual plains with a rising ground towards the west, where a ridge of high mountains forms the frontier towards the Laos territory. We do not know of a single city in these regions. The latter district is situated on the sea-coast; the former on a fertile river; both are very productive, with a thriving peasantry.

*Son-tay* is behind a ridge of mountains, and towards the Laos frontier a country of hills and dales intervenes, with a rural and quiet population.

*Ning-binh* and *Lon-nam* are small territories, which derive their names from large cities, and are situated to the south of the great river, belonging to *Tay-son*. They are, strictly speaking, royal domains, for the capital of the country, *Kecho* or *Hanoi*, is on the right bank of the river, not far from the Laos frontier. Being the largest town in the whole empire, with no less than 200,000 inhabitants, it is more advanced in arts and industry than that of Hué. Weavers are numerous, and manufacture a kind of cotton-stuff, cheaper than any of the same description in China, with which no foreign manufacture could possibly compete. There are many fine buildings amidst hovels, and likewise wealthy natives employing considerable sums in trade. A very ancient place, and the abode of kings

through many generations, it has only lately become a mere metropolis. The national antipathy of the Tunkinese to the Cochin-Chinese is, however, always alive ; and the slightest provocation may lead to an insurrection, like in days of yore. As a nation in general, the Tunkinese are far more civilized than their neighbours, and possess more of the Chinese character. By the latter they are considered as honest. Their industrious habits are prominent, being early and late at their work ; and as husbandmen, lackerers, weavers, and fishermen they have few equals. *Heên*, farther down the river, on its southern bend, has a large trade, in which the Chinese share considerably. To the north, on the left bank, is the city *Namdinh*, which gives its name to a district. Strong currents and irregular tides prevent the concourse of junks from being greater, and many are annually lost.

*Hae-dong* includes the northern shore of the river. The capital of the same name is a very large place. Not far from it are extensive forests. The cultivation of rice is here also the principal branch whence the inhabitants derive their subsistence. The north-eastern ports of *Tunkin* are known under the name of *Kwang-yen*, including the peninsula of *Vinh-van-ninh*, to which the pirate isles nominally belong. The metropolis of the same name is the only place of importance for many miles around ; *Macao* has attained some celebrity as a marine port ; *Hoa-phen* and *Kiken*, however, are insignificant towns. On the north-eastern frontiers towards *Kwang-tung* lie those marshes and jungles, whose pestiferous exhalations have proved so very destructive to the Chinese armies, which at times invaded the country.

One of the largest districts is the northern Lang-bak (*Lang-son*) ; its ground is well watered by the *Tuk-duk* river. Farther north, the country rises into mountains, whilst the southern frontiers are very flat. Besides the capital, there are no cities, the inhabitants preferring to live in villages and hamlets.

Westward of this is *Kao-lung*, a very extensive valley, difficult of access, and once a state in itself, with gold and silver mines in the surrounding mountains. The inhabitants have little intercourse with their neighbours, and enjoy a shadow of independence. *Tuyen-Kwang* is a rich district in every respect. All kinds of grain thrive there to a great extent. No less than five rivers traverse the land, and the richest mines exist there ; from thence the silver, which circulates in considerable quantities throughout Tunkin, is brought. The inhabitants are a hardy race ; toiling throughout their lives, they are most eager in the pursuit of gain.

*Hong-hoa-tran* is situated to the north of the Laos country,

which is a dependency of Cochin-China. Here are also some rich metallic veins, and the people are much engaged in mining operations. The western portion is a plain, and a grain country.

*Thoi-nguen*, the central province, is a champaign country, full of rivers, and well adapted to rice cultivation; the other districts are very insignificant, and, consequently, we shall omit them.

The *Annam* territory of the *Laos* country (*Laktho*) is equal in extent to Cochin-China Proper; with the *Mekom* for its southern frontier, *Tunkin* to the north, and both to the east and west mountain chains, separating it on the one side from *Tunkin*, and on the other from the country of the same tribes, who are tributary to *Birmah*; it has strong natural boundaries. The south is a large plain, cultivated in patches and interspersed with jungle. From thence different raw productions are at times imported into *Annam*, through mountain passes. The present Annam government has constructed roads throughout the district, so that it can maintain some ascendancy over the vassals. Every village and city have its chiefs, and a nominal Leader assumes the government of the whole. This feudal tenure being little enforced, the tribes are therefore divided amongst themselves. They nevertheless speak the same language, have the same customs, religion, and literature, so that the head of a conqueror is only wanting to rescue this interesting race from their thralldom under many masters. Such an event once took place in the sixteenth century. The various leaders who lived along the *Mekom*, from the frontiers of China to *Kambodia*, united under one leader, the mountaineers joined them, and then proclaimed themselves a free people, being able to defy their neighbours. But instead of being satisfied with their independence, and laying the foundation of a lasting empire, so rich in natural resources, they of one accord felled a number of trees, made large rafts, and floated down the river, in order to subject the southern part of the peninsula to their sway. Acting without plan, they were quickly scattered, and lost amidst jungle and swamps. Their neighbours being made aware of their dispersion, regained their country, and the nation returned into bondage, from whence it has not yet been emancipated.

The principal states near the banks of the *Mekom*, along the frontiers of Upper *Kambodia*, are *Muong-thin*, *Muong-phong*, *Lak-khon*, *Lao-cheda*, *Bandon*, *Muong-khuk*, and *Vanluong-kwok*. The inhabitants are here far from inconsiderable, and the champaign country is thickly studded with agricultural houses and villages.

One of the central states is *Muonglong-phaban*. It comprises a large territory, remarkable for the many rhinoceroses and elephants that live in the stately forests.

North-west of this is *Keeson*, which keeps up a lively intercourse with *Tunkin*, of which many natives have removed thither, so that it has the aspect of an Annamese settlement.

Due north from *Muonglong-phaban*, occur *Ninh-kuong* and *Lak-ruong*, the residences of powerful chiefs, who rule over a large valley, and are nearly independent.

The whole northern part, consisting of two distinct valleys, has mere villages. All nature here possesses a certain grandeur, and the habitations of men are often found where we expect eagles' nests. There are nevertheless large plains, filled with a contented and thriving people.

The Annamese despise the Laos, as a nation ignorant of the Chinese character, and entirely uncivilized. The Laos having much to endure from tax-gatherers, merchants, and pedlars, submit cheerfully to their oppressors.

The *Government*.—The king is supreme and uncircumscribed in his power. He can decide according to or against the laws; the life and property of his subjects being his, he disposes of them as he likes. Usage prescribes that he should speak of himself as the Father of his people, and calling his government paternal, that he should inflict even cruel punishment as a chastisement for the improvement of his children. Yet he considers the Emperor of China as his supreme lord, who may judge his conduct, blame or degrade him. Though the acknowledgment is merely nominal, it constitutes a fundamental law, and as such is registered in the archives.

His courtiers and eunuchs are many, possessing great power. The harem, however, is not large, nor need the monarch be jealous of his wives, for females are not here, as in other Asiatic countries, put under restraint. Every luxury may be found in the palace, with many objects of art and ingenuity from Europe; amongst which, an extensive collection of precious stones, gems, and pearls is seen. The three last sovereigns have emulated each other who should amass most, and the markets of China and India have been ransacked to satisfy the kings, whilst the French have imported large stores of Parisian trinkets. The present sovereign seldom appears abroad, and always with a strong guard.

The principal officers of state are, the Governors of *Tunkin* and *Kambodia*, and Minister of Trade; the latter also controls the foreign department. The supreme Government much resembles that of China, being formed on its model. The six tribunals therefore, with small modifications, exist, and at the



head of each a minister of state. These, with the above, and a few persons chosen by the king, constitute the council of state, which the sovereign convokes at pleasure. All the officers are dressed in the Chinese fashion, under the *Ming* dynasty, and divided, as their prototypes, into ten orders. But the military mandarins are considered higher than the literary authorities, which is the very reverse in China. A military Governor is at the head of each province, and he has two deputies who are his assistants. The same form prevails in the districts called *Tran*; these are subdivided into *Huyen*, or counties, and *Tso*, or townships. There is, moreover, a well-organized municipal government in the cities and villages, carried on by the older and more respectable persons.

The principle, that there should be only *one man* invested with authority, is consistently carried through all departments. The nobility is created at the king's pleasure, and no one has any power except derived from him. The nation, consequently, is one whole, and the few who enjoy the royal favour are the sole possessors of privileges. It is a democracy on a large scale, on broader principles than even in China; examinations for degrees also take place in Annam, as well as China, but they are not carried on with such vigour.

Every third male must serve the Government from the age of 18 to 60 years for the space of three years, either as sailor, soldier, or common workman. After this he may go home; but when another three years have elapsed, he is again called upon to perform the same service. Such is the constant routine of unrequited labour to which this nation is subject in ordinary times. In war, however, or on an emergency, the requisitions are far more extensive, and the whole male population is often turned out to construct a road or dig a canal. As the supplies furnished to the workmen are very scanty, and no attention is paid to them in sickness, many then die from sheer want in a country teeming with fertility. In Kambodia these corvées are more severe; whilst Tunkin enjoys some exemption, and only the seventh man there is in the service of the state.

The guards consisted of 36,000 men, divided into 40 regiments of 10 companies of 60 men each, and these are classed in five brigades. There are, moreover, 25 regiments which form five legions, and both constitute the actual force of the Empire. As the horses are very indifferent, there is no cavalry, but 800 elephants are substituted, some being attached to every regiment. The provincial troops are on a smaller scale; and the whole army, which numbered during the time of the warlike *Gia-long* 150,000 to 200,000 men, is now only 60,000 strong. The entire military establishment has lately been much reduced.

For the protection of the coast marine regiments are formed, to act as sailors and soldiers on board the men-of-war. These consist of rowing boats, which sail with the utmost rapidity, and are admirably worked with 40 to 100 oars. They have also galleys that sail and row, carrying from 4 to 16 cannon; vessels half-junk and half-ship, from 10 to 24 cannon; and sloops of war according to our model. Whether any larger craft has been added to the navy we are not aware, nor can we state the number of vessels at present in commission. The former kinds of boats are the most useful and numerous, and Gia-long had no less than 500 of them in his service.

The discipline of the navy as well as army is according to European principles; still this cannot inspire courage, as the bamboo is always used, and servility most barbarously inculcated. The ease with which the French, on a recent occasion, destroyed their men-of-war, proves that though the form of tactics with the Annamese is not different, still the same spirit does not animate them, and they are feeble when opposed to Europeans, notwithstanding their vast superiority over all other southern Asiatics. The soldiers all wear uniforms—a red tunic; not so the officers, who dress like common gentlemen. The muskets and spears of the soldiers are excellent, the guns admirable, and the manœuvres of the army very scientific, and executed with great precision. No native prince in these parts of the world can show anything like them. But the men are badly paid (about half-a-dollar per month), and receive besides a ration of rice. A lieutenant gets only double, and so on in proportion in the higher grades—nowhere, however, above a bare subsistence. As the soldiers, on having served three years, are sent home, the officers alone can be said to constitute the standing army. There is thus much weakness, notwithstanding the apparent strength, in the military department; yet the Annamese are strong enough to be a match against any power on the peninsula, as well as China.

The law is here, as in China, everything; but the dispenser of the same bends it to his own purposes, so that it materially strengthens the administration. The bamboo is the invariable instrument of castigation, inflicted on all classes, and even the prime minister himself is liable to it. Other punishments are very similar to those of China, and are bestowed with a recklessness scarcely credible. The prisons are fearful abodes, full of misery and filth; and mercy forms no part of a judge's character, for which unbending severity is the best recommendation.

The revenue is principally derived, as in China, from the land. There is also a poll-tax of a little more than half-a-dollar for

each adult male subject not employed in the king's service, with sundry other contributions from the industry or consumption of the inhabitants. The land-tax is partly paid in kind, and the produce hoarded up in the granaries of the capital. The king is as anxious to receive the money into his treasury as he is tardy in issuing it from his hoards. The consequence is an immense accumulation of bullion in the exchequer. Crawford was told that there was at one time gold to the amount of seven millions of dollars in the treasury lying dormant, without the slightest use to the country.

In the imposition of taxes, the Cochin-Chinese government need not study the system of Western nations, for the mandarins are quite able to levy any amount. The limit prescribed is the wretchedness of the nation, destitute of all resources. If the government falls, its treasury is plundered, its resources are cut off, no appeal to the people can be made, and it must be ruined, or replenish its coffers by some desperate act.

The Annamese are thus shown not to rank low in the scale of Asiatic nations. The government, with all its defects, is superior to the Persian, to the native administration in Hindostan, and to that in Siam. As no inveterate prejudices exist, great improvements will take place with the spread of Christianity.

**BIBLIOGRAPHY.**—The books for the knowledge of these countries are by no means numerous. Foremost stands *Crawford's* 'Embassy,' a work of the highest value, being full of correct information. *Finlayson's* 'Journal' is interesting. *White's* 'Voyage to Cochin-China' shows a prejudiced mind soured by ill success. *Barrow's* 'Voyage,' like all the works of that author, is able. *Bissachere*, dealing in generalities, presents not a true picture of either Tunkin or Cochin-China: some of the old relations are amusing, but not instructive. The 'Lettres Édifiantes' give here and there valuable hints. *Valentyn's* 'Beschoroing van Kambodia,' in his great work on the East Indies, furnishes little information. From *Dampier's* 'Voyages' we receive sound instruction. *Gaubil's* 'Lettre' has a few important remarks. *Paulo Condore Purefuy's* 'Cursory Observations on Cochin-China' have some value. *Alex. de Rhodes* presents the best account of Tunkin we yet possess. The description of the Chinese ambassadors of *Chen la Founthouki*, as given by *Abel Remusat*, has some interest. *Dayot's* Charts are excellent. The 'Researches' of *Abel Remusat* are the best of that country. The most superior and accurate map we possess of the entire Annamese Empire is the "Annam quoe hõa do," published by *Taberd*. His dictionary, Latin and Annamese, and Annamese and Latin, is a very valuable work. The 'Gan-nan kwotung-che' is a diffuse compilation;

throughout the whole of Chinese history there are various hints about *Tunkin* and *Cochin-China*. *Mailla*, in the '*Histoire générale de la China*,' furnishes some notices, as well as *Abel Remusat's* '*Du Royaume de Camboge*,' in the '*Nouvelles Mélanges Asiatiques*,' *Berghaus'* '*Karte von Hinter Indien*,' and '*Memoirs*,' evince the diligent geographer; and *Ritter* is a laborious and very careful compiler.

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XIII.—*Geographical Notes on the Nile.* By Professor PAUL CHAIX, Corresponding Member of the Royal Geographical Society, Geneva.

[Read March 12, 1849.]

CLOT BEY says, in his '*Tableau de l'Egypte*,' that the level of the Nile at Cairo is 40 French feet above the Mediterranean, 287 feet at Syout, 357 feet at Thebes, and 543 feet five leagues lower down than Assouan. According to the Duke of Ragusa ('*Voyage en Orient*') the fall of the river is 6 metres between Benisouef and Abou-Girgé. Unfortunately neither of these authors has informed us by whom and by what means their levels have been measured. I am inclined to think the fall of the river has been much exaggerated, excepting the height at Cairo, which was actually measured by MM. Lepère and Jacotin during the flood of 1798. The Duke of Ragusa was provided with an apparatus for thermometric levels, but was deterred from publishing the results he had obtained by seeing that they led him to absurd conclusions.

Mr. Lambert, the present director of the Polytechnic School at Boulak, broke his barometer while he followed Mohammed Ali in his journey to Nubia—an accident of common occurrence. I am only indebted for having preserved mine entire to my never allowing it to be out of my hand. In order to compare my own measurements with the regular observations kept at the observatory at Boulak, I applied to the director, Mr. Lambert, who kindly forwarded me a translation of those observations. The building of the observatory has for its nucleus the old fort Donzelot, which the French had built close to the burial-ground at the northern extremity of the suburb of Boulak during their occupation of Cairo. It is well provided with astronomical and meteorological instruments, and hourly observations are made with the barometer and thermometer, which implies a degree of accuracy certainly not surpassed in any other observatory. Mr. Lambert intends to publish them both in Arabic and French, and they may be rendered very useful to travellers. Mr. Lambert told me that none before me had ever applied for them.